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## FRENCH GRAMMAR MADE CLEAR

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## IN FRENCH:

La Pensée Religieuse dans l'Angleterre Contemporaine. Paris, Lecoffre, 190j.

Figures de Moines (crowned by the French Academy).
Paris, Perrin, 1908.
Les Soeurs Bronte.
Paris, Bloud, 1910.
Grammaire Anglaise Simplifiée.
Paris, de Gigord, 1919.

## IN ENGLISH:

Paul Bourget, an Essay in Literary Biography.
London, Constable, 1911.
France Herself Again.
London, Chatto \& Windus; New York, Putnam, 1914. The March to Timbuctoo.

London, Chatto \& Windus, 1915.
The Tendencies of French Thought.
Oxford University Press, 1916.
Has France Gained Anything by the War?
(Lowell Lectures, 1919) almost ready.
Latin Grammar Made Clear (in collaboration with Professor H. Petitmangin and John A. Fitzgerald).

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Latine de Romanis.

## FRENCH GRAMMAR

 MADE CLEARFOR USE

## IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

BY
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## FRENCH GRAMMAR MADE CLEAR

## FOREWORD

## TO THE STUDENT

This book was written for you-not for your teacher who has a large library of learned works, but for you. Every word of it was chosen, every typographical arrangement devised for you. You will notice that although in most cases examples are given first in English with the French translation after, the contrary order occasionally appears. This is not the result of arbitrariness but of the consideration of what you will sometimes prefer. Your needs were considered in everythirg.

Some people contend that we can learn a language without learning the grammar of that language: they even say that we learn it better that way. In fact, there is no doubt that the quickest method for leatning a language is to speak it with people who know it well, and the next quickest is to read good books written in that language. But you certainly know, in your own school, boys or girls who have learned French in Europe or with a French governess and who, nevertheless, surprise their teacher by their mistakes in speaking. And you probably know people who read French as easily as English but cannot write six lines in French correctly. Ask a few questions and you
will invariably find that these people have never studied a French grammar and are ready to admit that their hesitations have no other cause than their ignorance of the grammar.

Nobody knows, really knows, a language, without knowing the grammar of that language.

But what is a grammar? Is it the work of a legislator we have to obey implicitly? Is it a collection of formulas so final that they cannot be altered in one syllable and must be remembered as they are or not at all?

Some people imagine this, and it goes a long way towards explaining their antagonism to grammars.

But grammars are neither codes nor formulas: they are merely the explanation of certain ways of speaking. When a person asks another: what is "five hundred" in French? -"Cinq cents"- And what is "five hundred and ten"?"Cinq cent dix"; if the person who knows French better points out to the other that cent takes an S in the plural when there is no other figure after it, but does not take the $s$ if it is followed by another figure, a grammatical rule is given in simple but excellent language. A grammar is merely a collection of such explanations: it is the description of a language from well-chosen examples.

This will explain to you why this grammar consists of questions and answers like the conversation mentioned above, why the technical language of grammarians is as much as possible avoided in it, and why examples are of such capital importance in its composition. You are not expected to remember verbatim any rules: you are expected to understand the difference between two ways of phrasing, in English and in French, and the best manner in which you can show that you have understood this difference is to invent an example of your own in imitation of the one given in the grammar.

A grammar is nothing if it is not helpful: it must be short enough to leave plenty of time for reading and conversation in class, but it must be complete enough not to omit anything, the absence of which might cause embarrassment, astonishment, or ultimately anxiety. The tendency in the composition of "French Grammar Made Clear" has been to leave out rather than crowd in. The author set himself a rule to which he has throughout adhered: adinit. nothing that may unduly complicate and leave out all that is not generally known to an educated Frenchman. Why burden the memory of an American boy or girl with niceties which even a French writer may not know?

Altogether you will soon realize that this book has been composed to enlighten, not dazzle you. It aims at being your friend as much as your own teacher is: the advice it gives, its efforts to be clear to the eye as well as to the mind, its anxiety to make use of what you are sure to know already in order to lead you on to what may be new to you (SEe treatment of the subjunctive, page 133), its decided optimism, are only aspects of the friendly attitude natural to one who has guided pupils and rejoiced in their progress all his life.

## THE FRENCH LANGUAGE

## 1. Where is the French language spoken?

a) Throughout France, though species of patois survive in most of the country districts, while Flemish, Breton, Alsatian, Corsican, or Basque are spoken by about two million people; in the south-eastern half of Belgium ; in the western cantons of Switzerland; and in a few Alpine valleys, such as the Vallée d'Aoste, which are nów Italian territories;
b) in the French colonies of Algeria, Tunis, Morocco, Central Africa, Indo-China, Martinique, etc., and in former French possessions (the Channel islands, Eastern Canada, Mauritius, Louisiana) which have retained a strong French element;
c) in numerous communities, especially in the Levant and in Egypt, where French schools have loing been in existence;
d) finally, French, in the seventeenth century, became the almost exclusive medium of science, philosophy, and diplomacy; and although English in many cases and German in others tended to supersede it during the latter part of the nineteenth century. it is still used in numerous publications outside of France and is the common language of diplomatists: all the great international agreements are
drawn up in French, even when France happens not to be a signatory to them. Hence the importance given to the knowledge of French in distinguished or learned circles the world over.

## 2. What is the French language?

A glance at a French text will tell any one with a knowledge of Latin that the French language, as well as Italian or Spanish, is a derivative of Latin: ninety-nine in a hundred French words are of Latin origin. How this transformation took place, history tells us very clearly. When, in 50 B.C., Julius Caesar conquered the country which was to be called France, this territory was inhabited by communities of Gauls, established at favorable points along the larger rivers, and separated. the one from the other, by thick woodlands. In most of the cities which had so developed, the Romans kept garrisons and gradually disseminated their civilization in the course of four and a half centuries during which they held possession. When the invasions of the Franks (fifth century of the Christian era) compelled them to make way for the new-comers, the presence of the Roman armies, magistrates, schools, and shops, as well as frequent inter-marriages, had made Gaul as completely Latin as Mexico, originally Indian, had become Spanish when Spain had to renounce her rights there. Except in a few out-of-the-way districts where the Gallic language (akin to Gaelic) was still spoken, the Gauls had wholly forgotten their own dialects and spoke only Latin.

Was this Latin exactly similar to the language with which the works of Cicero and Virgil have
made us familiar? No, it was as different from it as American slang is different from the English of Lincoln. Even in Rome there were two varieties of Latin: one used by cultivated people who called a horse equus and a house domus, the other spoken by the lower clas'ses who replaced these words by caballus and mansio. The Latin language used by the Roman armies (sermo castrensis) was this inferior Latin, made even more different from classical Latin by the miscellaneous origin of the men who spoke it. The Roman legions, as io well known, were largely recruited from barbarous tribes speaking various languages; necessity compelled these soldiers to adopt the language of their Ro. man comrades, (that is to say, the low Latin described above), but they seldom spoke it as Italianborn men did. Some of them could not pronounce an R , others could not pronounce a $G$, many sounded a d like a $T$, many others could not distinguish a $B$ from a $v$, while nearly all of them were utterly ignorant of the delicate rules of Roman prosody and accented wrongly all but the simplest words. This was the kind of Latin which the majority of Gallo-Romans-as Romanized Gauls were called -had a chance to learn.

The Franks were not numerous-only about 30,000 - and they were far from being superior in civilization to the people whom they were apparently dominating; in a generation or two they forgot their own Teutonic tongue and began to speak the language of the Gallo-Romans with hardly any modifications. However, the departure of the Romans left these ancestors of the French without a standard of language, and hence-
forth Latin was treated with as little regard for purity as English may be in a factory full of unamericanized foreigners coming from half a dozen different countries. The niceties of Latin declerisions and conjugations were forgotten; consonants were interchanged in an apparently extraordinary manner (cf. "yep" for yes), many were suppressed (cf. "goo"bye" for good-bye, "twenny" for twenty) ; the vowels, being more delicate, passed through even worse deformations (cf.girl pronounced "goil," American pronounced "Amarican" or "Amurrican," "room" pronounced in the South of the United States, as in the South of England, as if oo were a French U, etc., etc.) ; above all, the accented syllable in every word tended to weaken or even to kill its neighbors (cf. "d'you 'member" for "do you remember,". and the suppressions frequent in English versification.)

In the case of the Gallo-Romans, having no standard authorities to correct the popular faults and corruptions of speech, the results were: 1), a shortening of Latin wonds, due to the incapacity of untrained ears to perceive clearly any except the accented syllables (bonitatem, for instance, became bontat, and gradually bonta and bonté) ; 2), a transformation of vowels into very different sounds varying with the districts and giving rise 10 numerous dialects (for instance, REGEM became "ROI," which even now is pronounced "rwcy," within a few miles of Paris, while in Italian it is RE, in Spanish Rey).

These transformations were quick and multitudinous during the stage of the language known as

Old French (from the beginning of the ninth to the end of the thirteenth century). There was no standard of spelling or speaking, and the innumerable dialects were supposed to be one as good as the other. However, as the King, from his rather precarious position as mere lord of the Ile-deFrance (the province roundabout Paris), slowly rose to superior authority, the language spoken by him and his court began to be regarded as the language of culture and fashion, and the other dialects fell to the lower rank of patois.* The craving of writers to be known and appreciated at court naturally worked in the same direction and when at last printing was invented, the Parisian language had for two hundred years been acknowledged as the standard of polished French. The frequent recurrence in it of mute e's, lending fullness and vibration to the preceding syllable, of softened LL's as in fille and écaille, and of the so-called nasal sounds (IN, ON, AN, UN), gave it a fluid quality and a harmony which the tap-tap of the langue d'oc or Southern French can never possess.

## 3. Is French a difficult language for English-speaking people to learn?

No language has so simple a grammar as English, and the consequence is that English-speaking people have a tendency to look upon the grammars of other languages as complicated. It is a fact that while English nouns denoting things are uniformly neuter, they are masculine or feminine in French;

[^0]the adjective, too, which in English is undeclined, follows in French the gender of its accompanying noun and varies again as the noun is singular or plural; pronouns change in the same manner. Above all, by contrast to the simplicity of the English verb, French conjugations seem puzzling, and the irregular verbs are supposed to tax one's attention and memory in an extraordinary degree.

There is truth here. But there is no less truth in the fact that hundreds and thousands of Americans, especially women, speak French to perfection, and many more who have never made sufficient effort to master the spoken language read French books as if they were in their own tongue. A few simple rules and a little practise (by speaking and through reading very easy books) rob the French genders of their apparent difficulty, and the rules concerning the adjectives and pronouns become clear in consequence. Finally, it is doubtful whether the French conjugations would frighten any one if the irregular verbs-comparatively very few in number-were not so constantly described as a nightmare, which, in simple truth, they are not. A little method and moderate attention will show uniformity where there is supposed to be such disheartening diversity, but the method is all important: the first half hour spent over the French verbs ought to reassure the student for ever.

## 4. Is the French vocabulary a great difficulty?

Some people imagine so, but they are mistaken. Seventy per cent. of the English vocabulary is French in origin. Several thousand French words
(for instance, some twelve hundred ending in tio is like application, nation, ration) are exactly similar to the English words which they translate, while some ten thousand more (as exigence for exigency, papier for paper) are so like their English counterparts that they are unmistakable. It can be said that any one who knows English knows some fifteen thousand French words before having consciously learned any French at all, and this accounts for so many people being able to guess at the meaning of a French newspaper without really knowing the language.

## 5. Is French difficult to pronounce?

Yes, for people who do not try or who foolishly imagine that they would appear ridiculous if they did try. Many people, supposed to enjoy exceptional opportunities for learning the French pronunciation, go on sounding foreign to the end of their lives because they make no effort of the sort required; others improve with astonishing rapidity because they realize that you no more learn how to pronounce a language merely by listening to, or even by living with, people who speak it than you learn to sing by going to the opera without ever practising singing. The only method is to copy or even mimic the intonation and sounds,-in a word, the placing of the French voice. Progress will be in keeping with the effort so made.

The student ought to aim, from the very first lesson, at a correct pronunciation of the French Rthe real key to proper placing of the vocal organs -of the nasal sounds in, on, AN, UN, and of the
sounds represented by $\mathrm{U}, \mathrm{AU}$, and EU. The moment these are secured-and with some pupils it only takes half an hour to gain them-other details become easy.

## 6. Where is the best French spoken?

The French have an inborn taste for elegant language, and improve every opportunity they have of acquiring distinction in speech. It is not rare to see servants acquire their employers' pronunciation apparently without any effort. Provincialism in accent or choice of words seldom escapes being laughed out of a young man during his military service. The consequence is that a large proportion of French people speak well. In Paris most people have a good accent, and practically every child brought up there has a refined pronunciation. One may safely say that, apart from the South, where the language is pure but the pronunciation is peculiar, a foreigner has no difficulty in finding in every town, but above all in Paris, models of the very best speech. The difference in this respect between French and English-speaking countries is striking.

## ADVICE

## 1. What is the best method to adopt in learning the grammar?

The less you look at your book while learning, that is to say, the more you compel your memory to work without the help of your eyes, the more easily you learn. One may read with one's eyes, and, worst of all, with one's lips-a silly habitwithout paying any real attention to one's book and indeed while thinking of something else all the time.

You learn best by trying to understand thoroughly. A grammatical rule is not a regulation or an article from a code; it is the explanation of a way of speaking, and this explanation consists merely in pointing out the difference between the language you are learning and your own. Take an English sentence and its French translation-for example, Think before speaking"-réfléchissez avant de parler-and examine both as carefully as you would scan a new typewriter or a new dress pattern. You will soon see that French uses the infinitive where English uses the present participle and you will have no difficulty in remembering the rule, viz., after prepositions which in English take the present participle, the French lan-
guage uses tile infinitive. The all-important thing is never to make an attempt at remembering the rule, for examination purposes, before thoroughly understanding the example given. Some teachers wisely insist on the pupil's using in class an example of his own making instead of that given in the book, because this compels the student to understand instead of just merely remembering.

Not everything in French grammar is as simple as the use of the infinitive after prepositions. You may be set a more complicated lesson, for instance, the differences and similarities between the various groups of verbs in the present indicative:
Aimer Finir Recevoir Rendre

| J’aime | Je finis | Je reçois | Je rends |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Tu aimes | Tu finis | Tu reçois | Tu rends |
| Il aime | Il finit | Il reçoit | Il rend |
| Nous aimons | Nousfinissons | Nous recevons | Nous rendons |
| Vous aimez | Vous finissez | Vous recevez | Vous rendez |
| Ils aiment | Ils finissent | Ils reçoivent | Ils rendent |

You will be frightened at first-less by the thing itself than by what you have heard of the difficulty of French verbs-but the moment you really examine the four models above -examine them as if they were four types of fountain pen-you will find with great satisfaction, 1) that the ending; ons, ez, and ent are everywhere the same in the plural ; 2) that finir, recevoir, and rendre coincide even in the singular; and 3) that, after all, aimer differs from the others only in the first and third persons singular, which therefore are alone to be remembered, as exceptions. These three statements
make up the rule you are expected to find for yourself.

The moment you see such a rule clearly, shut your book and mentally rehearse the whole thing till you feel sure it cannot slip out of your memory. This practise will not only teach you the French grammar and the French language, but will also teach you concentration. It will strengthen your memory and, if you try to state what you have just learned logically, clearly, and in neat, accurate terms. it will teach you to think clearly and explain lucidly, which, after all, is the main object of education.

## 2. Is it advisable to learn French words systematically?

It is astonishing that some people should seriously ask such a question. Anybody who really wishes or needs to master a language learns words all the time. Read John Situart Mill's fascinating Autobiography: you will see how as a very little boy he used constantly to note on cards the Greek words which his father taught him because there were at the time only Greek-Latin dictionaries and the child had been started on Greek before beginning Latin. The results were marvelous. Also people living in a foreign country have new words forced into their memory at every turn. One should strive to remember each word as if its meaning were never to be revealed to one again.

In fact rothing is easier than mastering the vocabulary. It does not take five minutes to learn ten French words, and if you learn ten words a day, in two years you will know nearly
eight thousand, an enormous supply. The secret is to learn the ten words every day and at the same hour.

## 3. How does one learn French words?

By looking intently, instead of merely glancing, at them, by repeating them, and by joining them to other words. Words can not be learned simply by being glanced at in a dictionary or casually heard in class. Like everything else they only become familiar upon long acquaintance. When you find in an exercise an English word the French equivalent of which is unknown to you, naturally you look it up. While it stands there before you, examine it a few moments, take in its physiognomy, listen to its sound, imagine the object it represents, think of its opposite, above all, insert it in a sensible sentence, and when this has been done write it down in a note-book kept at hand for the purpose. Do the same when you read a French text: dwell on every word you do not know, instead of just skimming over it. In this way, a valuable habit will soon be formed: some students show a surprising capacity for remembering long lists of new words.

You will find that four words which help one another because their combination has some meaning can be remembered more easily than two which have no connection. Feu, charbon, chaudière. chauffeur, will stay in your memory if you think of the locomotive while learning them and if you put them together in some such sentence as "le chauffeur met du charbon sur le feu de la chaudière.."

You will remember words better by translating from English into French than by doing the reverse. Nothing will teach you words so infallibly as writing down in French what another person is dictating very slowly in English, and, immediately afterwards, having your mistakes pointed out to you. Observe that when you speak French you are translating from English. Merely guessing or remembering the meaning of a French word is not enough : what is necessary is to be able to find the French word when you are given its English equivalent.

## 4. How does one learn to think in French?

This may very easily be done by rewriting rapidly or summing up out loud a French passage one has just read. One should never construe more than ten lines without stopping, reading the passage over again, and repeating it in French, not verbatim but fluently and freely, thinking more of the words than of their syntax, which need not be currect at first.

People who know many languages generally learn them in that way, without any professors. The more words and languages you know, the more easily you learn others. Memory is not a box which must in time get filled up; it is a habit which, like a muscle, is strengthened by daily use.

## ALPHABET

| Letters: | Pronounced | Lejters: | Pronounced |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| A | $a$ (in father $)$ | N | enn |
| B | bé | O | $o$ |
| C | cé | P | pé |
| D | dé | Q | kü |
| E | é | R | air |
| F | éff | S | ess |
| G | gé | T | té |
| H | ásh | U | ü |
| I | $e e$ | V | vé |
| J | jee | W | double vé |
| K | kah | X | eex |
| L | ell | Y | i grec |
| M | emm | Z | zed |

## Note.

1. Learn at once to give French letters their French name.
2. $\mathrm{F}, \mathrm{H}, \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{M}, \mathrm{N}, \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{S}$, are feminine ; ex.: une F ; une S ; but many educated French people say un of all letters.

## Accents:

There are tharee accents:

- acute accent. Ex.: épeler.
- grave accent. Ex.: à, très.
^ circumflex accent. Ex.: pâte, tête, côte, flûte.

The acute accent is pronounced with the lips hardly opened; the grave accent with the lips moderately opened; the circumflex with the lips wide open.

## PRONUNCIATION

## 1. What differences are there between the pronunciation of English and the pronunciation of French?

a) French is substantially pronounced as it is written, whereas vowel sounds in English vary from one word to another. Why the sound of the final A in the English word naval should differ from the first, and why both A's in this word should not sound like a in hat is puzzling to foreigners.
b) French words can be said to have no accented syllables although the last syllable is slightly emphasized: each syllable stands out clearly and independently from its neighbors. For instance, the word stratagème, which an English-speaking person naturally pronounces strat' agem is pronounced in French stra-ta-gème, and the three syllables have the same value (exactly as "one, two, three" is pronounced without any emphasis on any of the three numbers.)
c) The French always divide their words by resting the voice on a vowel; for instance strataGÈMe is pronounced stra-ta-gème and mONASTÈRE: is pronounced mo-na-stère. The stressed syllables of the same words in English are divided after consonants (Strat'-a-gem; mon'-as-tery). The conse-
quence is important. We are tempted and practically compelled in English to give prominence to consonants, even to the extent of making them sound as though they were double (stratt'agem, monn'astery), and this imparts inevitable harshness to the pronunciation. The French use their teeth less and their lips more in speaking; T in the is much softer than in tea.
d) Long vowels in French are slightly less long than in English and short vowels are decidedly longer. For instance, a in the French word bâton is slightly shorter than A in bark (long A), but the same vowel in the French word rat is appreciably longer than in the English word rat; I in the French word six is shorter than ea in cease and longer than I in the English word six.

## 2. What is the pronunciation of French vowels?

A. A sounds like A in father; ex. ; fable. A sounds like A in bar; ex.: bâtir.
E. E without any accent is mute at the end of a word, as in English; ex.: page; elsewhere it sounds like the first E in veneer; ex. : venir.
É sounds like Ay in bay, but shorter and clear. ex. : bénir.
È sounds like E in perish $\mathrm{A}_{\text {, }}$ but a trifle longer; ex.: père.
$\hat{\mathrm{E}}$ has the same sound but longer again; ex.: tête.
I. I has the sound of EE in feet, but shorter; ex. : midi; î now-a-days is hardly longer than I .
O. o sounds like the o in botany; ex.: poli; before an R it sounds like OA in roar; ex. : aurore;
ô sounds like 0 in total, but decidedly longer; ex.: ôter.
$\mathrm{U} . \mathrm{U}$ and $\hat{\mathrm{u}}$ now-a-days have the same sound; this sound is very like 00 as pronounced in Louisiana (moon=mün) but clearer; ex.: mur, or mûr.

## 3. How are French diphthongs pronounced?

French diphthongs can be divided between compound vowels and true diphthongs.
Compound vowels are pronounced like single vowels :
AI is pronounced sometimes like E ; ex. : $j \mathfrak{j} a \dot{i}$; sometimes like è ; ex.: vrai;
AU or EAU is pronounced like ô; ex. : haut, bateau. EU is pronounced like $E$ in ERR but longer; ex.: heureux.
ou is pronounced like a short 00 ; ex. : cou.
Real diphthongs are:
AIL pronounced like EYE; ex.: taille.
EIL pronounced very nearly as AY is pronounced by English singers; ex.: veille.
OI pronounced like WAH but shorter; ex.: roi. OË pronounced in the same manner in poële, moëlle.
4. What is the pronunciation of the nasal sounds an or en, in, on, un?
The pronunciation of these sounds cannot be described accurately, although the English endings in ANG (ex.: twan ( $g$ ) ), and on(G) (ex.: wrong) approximate AN and ON : it should be heard from a native born north of the Loire, for in the south of France the N is sounded and the nasal effect is missed;

AN and frequently EN sound like AN(G); ex.: sans, cent;
EN not pronounced as above sounds approximately like AN in SANG; ex.: chien;
in has the same sound; ex.: chemin;
ON sounds approximately as it does; in Wrong; ex.: bon;

UN sounds approximately as UN in UNCLE, but the N is not perceived; ex: brun.

## Note.

AN, EN, IN, ON are changed to AM, EM, IM, OM before the letters $B$ and $P$; ex: chambre, pompe, but their sound remains the same.

## 5. How are French consonants pronounced?

As in English but with the following exceptions:
$a): \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{S} ; \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{x}$, at the end of a word are generally silent; ex.: plomb, bond, loup, chiens, vent, deux.
$b): R$ is silent when it ends verbs in ER (not verbs in IR and OIR); ex.: aimer; ending other words it is sounded; ex.: cher, hier.
c) : c before E and I has the same sound as S ; ex.: cerise, cinéma; before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}$, and U it sounds like K unless it is printed ç (cedilla) in which case it sounds like s; ex.: ça, .aperธ̧u.
d): G before $A, O, \mathrm{U}$ sounds as it does in GET; ex.: gâter, gô̂ter, aigu; before E and I it sounds like s in pleasure; ex.: geste, giffle.
J always sounds like $s$ in pleasure.
$e): \mathrm{H}$ is sometimes mute; ex.: histoire, and sometimes aspirate; ex.: lache. When it is mute le or LA become L'; ex.: l'homme, l'histoirc; when it is
aspirate it is not sounded but LE or LA stand; ex.: le héros, la hache, and if the article is un, une, the final N in UN is not sounded while the final E in UNE is sounded: UNE hache.

## Note.

No rule, only usage can determine when $\mathbf{H}$ is aspirate or mute.

CH sounds like SH; ex.: chanter; тH sounds like T ; ex.: théâtre.

## 6. What is meant by liaison in French?

The sounding of a final letter otherwise mute before a word beginning with a vowel; for example, the s in gros is not sounded in un gros livere, but it sounds like z in un gros arbre; again the T in sont is mute in ils sont venus,, but it is sounded in ils sont arrivés.
This is caused by the aversion the French have for any harsh combination of consonants.
The French ear is equally offended by what is called hiatus, viz., two harsh sounding vowels; the French language obviates the hiatus by inserting it т between the two vowels; ex.: parle-t-elle? vien$d r a-t-o n$ ? and more frequently by eliding E or A in the article before nouns beginning by a vowel; ex. : l'arc, l'orme.

## Note.

Too many liaisons as well as the tendency to pronounce consonants dropped in current usage characterize the semi-educated.

## 7. What French sounds seem to be generally illtreated by English-speaking people?

a): Most consonants which English-speaking people pronounce sharply, as if they were double, instead of pronouncing them softly, using the lips more than the teeth; ta table should not be pronounced tta ttable.
$b): A U$ and $\hat{o}$ are often wrongly pronounced as if they consisted of a scale of o's whereas the French preserve to this sound its purity: tôt is not pronounced like toe, it is much nearer to to in total.
c) : EU is often wrongly pronounced like $U$ in but; it should be uttered with the lips hardly opened.
d) : the N should be entirely silent in the nasal sounds AN, in, on, UN; these sounds, in spite of their name; are remarkably fluid and harmonious.
$e)$ : The correct pronunciation of the French R is of vital importance and ought to be watched from the very first lesson. Except in a few provinces the French pronounce the R by vibrating the base, not the tip, of the tongue.(1) The consequence is that this $R$ is really a guttural sound, rather similar to a German or a Scotch ch. In fact the French word l'orme can be approximated very nearly by pronouncing the word loch as a German or a Scotchman does, and then adding the letter m , loch-m. However the CH should be sounded with as little effort and as briefly as possible.

## Note.

1. English-speaking people who accent French words as they do their own language, for instance, pro-

[^1]nouncing la cap' itale instead of la ca-pi-ta-le, produce a singing effect which does not exist in French.
2. The sentence "Rochambeau fut heureux de lutter pour les Insurgents" is a good test and should be practised.

## GRAMMATICAL TERMS

Grammar, la grammaire
A rule, une règle
The alphabet, l'alphabet
A vowel, une voyelle
A consonant, une consonne
A word, un mot

- A phrase, une locution

A sentence, une phrase
Spelling l'orthographe
Etymology, l'étymologie
The root, la racine
To parse, analyser
Speech, le discours
Parts of speech, les parties du discours
Article, l'article
Noun, le nom
Proper, propre
Common, commun
Material, concret
Abstract, abstrait
Compound, composé
Gender, le genre
Number, le nombre
Singular, singulier
Plural, pluriel
Subject, le sujet

Direct object, le complément direct
Indirect object, le complément indirect
Adjective, l'adjectif (masc.)
Adjective of quality, l'adjectif qualificatif
Comparative, le comparatif
Positive, positif
Superlative, superlatif
Demonstrative, démonstratif
Pronoun, le pronom
Personal, personnel
Intc., vgative, interrogatif
Relative, relatif
Verb, le verbe
Conjugation, la conjugaison
Transitive, transitif
Intransitive, intransitif
Passive, passif
Auxiliary, l'auxiliaire
Infinitive, l'infinitif
Indicative, l'indicatif
Subjunctive, le subjonctif
Present, le présent

| perfect, l'imparfait | - Punctuation, ponctuation |
| :---: | :---: |
| Perfect, le passé | La virgule |
| Pluperfect, le plus-queparfait | ; le point virgule <br> : les deux points |
| Future, le futur | le point |
| Participle, le participe | ? le point d'interro- |
| Adverb, l'adverbe | gation |
| Preposition, la préposition | ! le point d'exclamation |
| Conjunction, la conjonction | - «» les guillemets <br> - [] la parenthèse |
| Exclamation, l'interjection. | le tiret |
|  | - le trait d'union |

## ARTICLES

## 1. How do you translate the definite article the?

In English the definite article the is used in every case, whether the noun be masculine, feminine, or neuter, singular or plural. We say the man, the woman, the house, the houses, without any change in the article.

In French the article varies as follows:
Le is used before masculine nouns in the singular: ex.: le garçon, the bov;
LA is used before feminine nouns in the singular: ex.: la fille, the girl;
les is used before nouns of either gender in the plural: ex.: les garçons, les filles, the boys, the girls.
2. What is meant by the elision and by the contraction of the article?

Elision :
Before nouns beginning with a vowel or a silent h, le and la become l', ex.: l'arbre (masc.), the tree, l'école (fem.), the school, l'herbe (fem.), the grass.

## Contractions:

$$
\grave{A} \text { LE is contracted into } \mathrm{AU}(1)
$$

$\grave{A}$ LeS is contracted into AUX
DE LE is contracted into DU
DE LES is contracted into DES

## 3. Are there any rules for the distinction of genders in French?

The English names of men are masculine.
" " " " " women are feminine.

Nothing can be simpler.
In French the names of men and of male animals are all masculine, ex.: le père, LE médecin, LF taureau, (father, doctor, bull);
the names of women and female animals are all feminine, ex.: LA mère, la couturière, la brebis, (mother, seamstress, ewe) ;
but there is no neuter, and the consequence is that names of things and animals whose sex is not stated have to be either masculine or feminine, and apparently are arbitrarily so. For instance, umbrella, Le parapluie, is masculine, but parasol, L' ombrelle is feminine; the owl is masculine as LE hibou, but feminine as LA chouette, although both words refer to the same bird.
Are there any ways of knowing which nouns are masculine and which are feminine?
Yes.
$1^{10}$. Any one with a good knowledge of the Latin language need not learn the French genders: most

[^2]masculine and neuter nouns in Latin are masculine in French while most feminine nouns in Latin are also feminine in French.
$2^{0}$. In a great many cases the gender of the word can be inferred from its ending.
a) Masculine

1. Nouns in A, I, o, EAU, and U, ex.: un bêta, un roi, un zéro, un chapeau, un neveu.
2. Nouns in É, except nouns in té or tié, ex.: le e blé, le congé.
3. Most nouns in age, Ège, aire, oire, ex.: le ménage, le collège, le vestiaire, le laboratoire.
4. Most nouns ending in consonants other than those hereafter stated to be feminine.
b) Feminine
5. Nouns in té, tié, ex.: la charité, l'amitié.
6. Nouns in Ée, ex.: la matinée.
7. Nouns in sion and tion, ex.: la tension, l'application.
8. Nouns ending in mute e preceded by one or especially two consonants, ex.: la gare, la bagarre.
9. Most abstract nouns, ex. : la gloire, la justice, la vertu.

## Note.

1. One noun denoting a man is feminine: la sentinelle, the sentry, and the pronoun used with reference to it is elle.
2. Gens, people, is feminine. Ex.: de bonnes gens, GOOD PEOPLE, except when the adjective is placed after, ex.: des gens maladroits, AWKWard people.

## 4. Does the French language use the definite article

 le, la, les wherever there is the in English?No, le, la, les are used in many cases in which the is left out in English: abstract nouns, nouns relating to substances, the names of countries, the names of colors, plural nouns denoting the whole species, nouns designating titles, which in English are not preceded by the, take the article in French; ex.: LA gourmandise (GReediness), la confiture (jam), le Connecticut (Connecticut), le bleu (blue), les paresseux (lazy boys), le Président Wilson (President Wilson).

## Note.

Medieval French left out the article in practically every case in which English omits it. As proverbs are generally handed down from generation to generation in their original form it is not surprising that many French proverbs include nouns not preceded by the article. Ex.: souvent femme varie; ils sont comme chien et chat; (woman often changes; they are like cat and dog.)

## 5. How is the indefinite article $a$, an translated into French?

By un before masculine nouns, by une before feminine nouns, ex.: un couteau, A KNIFE, une heure, AN HoUR.

## 6. What is meant by the "partitive" article?

DU, DE LA DES, indicating a "part" of the object denoted by the following noun are called partitive. articles : they correspond to some or any in English. but are also used in sentences too general to admit these words in English. For instance : nous boirons:
du lait means: we shall drink some milk (on a given occasion), but it also means: WE SHALL DRINK milk (habitually).

## Note.

1. The mistake not infrequently made by English-speaking people: nous boirons de lait, instead of du lait, is caused by a confusión of genders (one thinks of the feminine partitive: nous boirons de l'sau).
2. However, DE instead of DU, DE LA, des is necessary, a) aíter pas, plus, beaucoup, peu, trop. Ex.: je $n$ 'ai pas de livres, I have no books; b) before a noun preceded by an adjective. Ex.: il y a de grandes forêts en France, there are large forests in france.

## Résumé

## What rules are exemplified in the following words or phrases?

The gentleman
The lady
The gentlemen
The ladies
The pupil
The clock
I go to school
Send them to the swimming pools
The teacher's desk
The college girls' badges
The wall
The breeze
Laziness
Maple syrup
le monsieur
la dame
les messieurs
les dames
$l$ ' élève
$l$ ' horloge
je vais $a u$ college
envoyez-les aux piscines
le pupitre $d u$ professeur
les insignes des étudiantes
le mur or la muraille
$l a$ brise
or $l e$ vent
la paresse
co jus d'érable

Canada
Red
Stupid people
Marshal Foch
A pencil
A slate
Pencils, slates
Some pie, cakes
Walks, too many walks
le Canada
$l e$ rouge
les gens bêtes
le maréchal Foch
un crayon
une ardoise
des crayons, des ardoises
de la tarte, des gâteaux
des promenades, trop $d e$ promenades

Expensive fountain-pens $\left\{\begin{array}{l}d e s \text { stylos coûteux, } \\ \text { or } d e \text { coûteux stylos. }\end{array}\right.$

## II

## NOUNS

## 1. How does the French language form the feminine of nouns?

The feminine of English nouns is formed in three different ways, a) by adding ess to the masculine, ex. : lion, lioness; b) by using a word totally different in form from the masculine, ex.: king, queen; son, daughter; bull, cow; c) by prefixing the words woman, female, she to the masculine, ex.: a woman painter, a female cousin, a she-zwolf. The French language uses forms corresponding to the first two of these three ways i.e. a) adding ESSE to the masculine, ex.: prince, princesse;
b) using feminine forms entirely different fromi the masculine, ex.: père, (fATHER), mère (moTHER) ; oncle (UNCLE), tarte (AUNT); taureau (bull), vache (cow);
but apart from a few cases in which the word femme is used (une femme peintre), the French language instead of prefixing a feminine word to the masculine noun adds the letter E which in the transformation of Latin into French became distinctly the feminine ending in adjectives or present participles (see page 39).
So, we can lay down as a rule that the French language forms the feminine by adding E to the masculine; ex.: bavard, fem. bavarde; commerçant, fem. commerçante; bourgeois, fem. bourgeoise.

Nouns ending in E in the masc. do not change.

## 2. Are there nop modifications of the noun beyond the addition of an $\mathbf{e}$ ?

Yes.
a) Some nouns slightly modify the last syllable:

1. nouns ending in ER have their feminine in Ère. Ex.: berger (SHEPHERD), fem. bergère;
2. nouns ending in ot have their feminine in otte. Ex.:linot (linnet), fem. linotte. Chat (САт) shows the same modification, chatte.
3. nouns ending in IEN or on have their feminine in ienne, onne. Ex. : chien (Dog), fem. chienne; lion, fem. lionne.
b) Some nouns which in the course of time came to be modified in the masculine show their original form in the feminine:
4. nouns ending in $x$ have their fem. in se. Ex.: époux (husband), fem. épouse, (masc. in old French=espous) ;
5. nouns ending in eau have their feminine in elle. Ex.: chameau (camel), fem. chamelle (the English word borrowed from the French in the eleventh century shows that at that time the masculine ended in el) :
6. nouns ending in EUR have their feminine in EUSE, because the R was not sounded. Ex.: menteur (Liar), fem. menteuse.
However, some nouns in EUR have their feminine in ICE. Ex.: acteur, fem. actrice, and chasseur (HUNTER) has chasseresse in the feminine.

## 3. What changes do French nouns undergo in the plural?

In French as in English the plural is formed by adding $s$ to the singular. Ex.: 'un livre, a book; deux lizres, тwo books.

This s is always silent.

## Note.

1. Nouns ending in $s, x, z$, do not change in the plural. Ex.: les bras (the arms), les voix (the voices), les nez (the noses).
2. Nouns endings in al have the plural in Aux (1), ex.: cheval (horse), plural chevaux, except bal (A dance), chacal (a jackal) and festival (a musical festivity) which have their plurals in S .
3. Nouns ending in au, eau, eu, and oeu have their plural in x. Ex.: joyau (JEWEL). pl. joyaux; bateau (boat), pl. bateaux; lieu (place), pl. lieux; vou (vow), pl. vœux.
The words bijou (Jewel), caillou (pebble), chou (cabbage), genou (knee), hibou (owl), joujou (toy), and pou (louse) also add x in the plural.
4. The words bail (lease), corail (CORal), émail (enamel), soupirail (Cellar-window), travail (WORK), and vitrail (Stained glass window) form their plural in AUX : baux, coraux, émaux, soupiraux, travaux, vitraux.

## 4. How do compound nouns form their plural?

Most compound nouns mentioned in grammars are hardly ever used in the plural; many others can be written in two ways, and the present tendency is to treat them as ordinary nouns. For instance. réveille-matin (ALARM-CLOCK) can be either left as it is or it can be written réveille-matins.

[^3]We can lay it down as a rule that when the two words are either two nouns, ex.: reine-marguerite (marguerite, a flower) or an epithet and a noun, ex.: rouge-gorge (ROBIN REDBREAST), both words take an S in the plural: reines-marguerites, rougesgorges; but when one of the words only explains or completes the other it does not take the s. F.x.: un arc-en-cicl, (A Rainbow), des arcs-en-ciel.

## 5. Does the French language ever use proper names in the plural?

Never in every-day use, ex.: we invited the MarQuettes, nous avons invité les Marquette; but in speaking of distinguished people or of their works the s is used, ex.: les deux Corneilles, the two Corneilles; les Millets du musée de Boston, the Millets in the Boston Museum.

## 6. Are collective nouns in French singular or plural?

They used to be plural, as they are in Latin and not infrequently in English, but they are now singular, ex.: nous avons joint l'ennemi; il est à nous, we have met the enemy ; they are ours.

## Résumé

## What rules are exemplified in the following words?

Hôte (host)
Coq (cock)
Cousin (male cousin)
Boulanger (baker)
Sot (fool)
fem. hôtesse (hostess)
fem. poule (hen)
fem. cousine (fem. cousin)
fem. boulangère
fem. sotte

| Alsacien (Alsatian) | fem. Alsacienne |
| :--- | :--- |
| Patron (master) | fem. patronne |
| Malhcureux (wretch) | fem. malheureuse |
| Jumeau (twin) | fem. jumelle |
| Buveur (drunkard) | fem. buvense |
| Ambassadeur (ambassador) | fem. ambassadrice |
| une plume (a pen) | deux plumes |
| une noix (a nut) | deux noix |
| l'arsenal (the arsenal) | les arsenaux |
| le noyau (the kernel) | les noyaux |
| le rail (the rail) | les rails |
| le cerf-volant (the kite) | les cerfs-volants |
| les Bourbons (dynasty) | the Bourbons. |

## III

## ADJECTIVES

Introductory Note-French grammars as well as English grammars treat first of Adjectives of Quality (adjectifs qualificatifs), ex.: beau (HANDSOME), laid (plain), and afteriwards of Pronominal Adjectives (adjectifs pronominaux) corresponding to THIS, WHAT, MY, SOME, MANY, EVERY, etc.

## A. ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY

1. What are the chief differences between adjectives of quality in French and in English?

Adjectives of quality in French a) are not invariable as they are in English, they are modified according to gender and number (A BIG BOY, un grand garçon, A BIG GIRL, une grande fille; BIG BOYS, de grands garçons); b) they never show comparison by inflexion (ER, EST) as in English, but by prefixing plus, le plus, (more, the most); ex.: bigger, plus grand, the biggest, le plus grand; c) they are placed, even in prose, as often after the noun as before it , ex.: une vieille maison, an old house, une maison neuve, a new house.

## 2. How is the feminine of adjectives formed in French?

Practically as the feminine of nouns (see page 34). General rule: the feminine of all adjectives is ended by e, either because the masculine is already
thus ended, ex,: aveugle, blind, or because an E is added to denote the feminine, ex.: A blue book, un liure bleu; A BLUE STUFF, une étoffe bleue.
The modifications stated on page 35 in the formation of the feminine of nouns are also found in the feminine of adjectives:

1. adjectives in er have their feminine in ère, ex.: léger (light), fem. légère;
2. adjectives in ET or ot have their feminine in ETTE, OTTE, ex.: violet, PURPLE, violette; vieillot (OLDISH), vieillotte;
However, complet, concret, secret, discret, inquiet, and replet (complete, concrete, secretive, discreet, uneasy, plump) have their feminine in Ète, and idiot (idiotic) and dévot (devout) become idiote and dévote in the feminine;
3. adjectives in $\mathrm{AN}, \mathrm{EN}$, and ON have their feminine in ANNE, ENNE, and ONNE, ex.: paysan (peASANT), fem. paysanne; ancien (old), ancienne; poltron (COWARDLY), poltronne;
4. adjectives in eau have their feminine in elle; ex.: beau (HANDSOME), belle; fou (MAD) and mou (SOFT) also become folle and molle.

Besides these modifications common to both nouns and adjectives there are a few others peculiar to adjectives:

1. Adjectives ending in C have the feminine in CHE, except public (public), fem. publique, and grec (Greek), fem. grecque. Ex.: blanc (white), fem. blanche; sec, (DRY), fem. sèche. Long, (LONG) becomes longue.
2. Adjectives in $\mathbf{s}$ have their feminine, some in SE , ex.: niais (STUPID), niaise, some in SSE, ex.: épais (тніск), épaisse.
3. The large group of adjectives in eux have their feminine in EUSE © ex.: peureux (TIMID), peureuse.
Adjectives in eur also have their feminine in EUSE; ex.: voleur (thievish), fem. voleuse, except meilleur (BETTER) and adjectives ending in Érieur, ex.: extérieur (exterior), which only add E , becoming meilleure, extérieure.
4. Adjectives ending in F change this letter into VE, ex.: neuf (New), fem. neuve.
5. Adjectives in el have their feminine in elle and adjectives in eil have it in eille: ex.: cruel (cruel), cruelle; pareil (similar), pareille; vieux (old), becomes vieille.
6. Favori becomes in the feminine favorite and hébreu (Hebrew) hébraïque; grand stays unchanged, although feminine, in the compound nouns grand'mère (GRandmother), grand'messe (high mass), grand'rue (high street), and grand'route (HIGHWAY).

## Note.

Most adjectives end in E or Eux and form their feminine in the simplest manner, so that the complication is more an appearance than an actuality.

## 3. How does French form the plural of adjectives?

a) Feminine adjectives all ending in E naturally form their plural in $s$ and consequently offer no difficulty, ex.: une brume épaisse (A THICK FOG), des brumes épaisses.
b) Masculine adjectives as a general rule also have their plural in s, ex.: un garçon agile (A nimble boy), des garçons agiles.

## However:

1. adjectives ending in $s$ or $x$ do not change in the plural masculine, ex.: deux gros chiens (Two LARGE DOGS) ; les paresseux (lazy boys);
2. adjectives in AL have their plural in AUX, except frugal (frugal) and naval (naval), ex.: un homme brutal (A BRUTAL MAN), des homme's brutaux (brutal men);
3. beau and nouveau become beaux and nouveaux; TOUT becomes tous (in the masc.,), ex.: tout le collège, ALL THE SCHOOL; tous les élèves, all the boys; toutes les élèves, all the girls.
4. Can the adjective be used as a noun in French?

Yes, and even more naturally than in English, for in English it has to be accompanied by a noun-at any rate in the singular-whereas in French it does not require any such addition, ex. : un Américain, an American man; une Américaine, an American woman; des Américains, American people; un petit Américain, an American boy; une petite Américaine, an American girl; un aveugle, A blind man; une aveugle, a blind woman; les aveugles, THE BLIND; le plus riche, THE RICHER one; les plus vieux, THE OLDEST ONES.

## 5. Where do you place the adjective of quality?

Generally after the noun, ex.: une promenade ravissante, A LOVELY WALK; une grammaire fran-
çaise, a French grammar; une fille intelligente, An intelligent girl.

## Note.

1. The result which poets or prose writers aiming at a poetic effect obtain in English by placing the adjective after the noun is obtained in French by placing it before the noun. But the noun ought to be of more than one syllable unless the adjective ends in e or es, ex.: un resplendissant horizon, A glowing horizon; la zaste mer, the wide ocean.
2. The modern tendency to exaggerate, and to a certain degree the diffusion of the English language among French people, encourage the habit of emphasizing the adjective by placing it before the noun. even in conversation: nobody ever says une française grammaire because the adjective would not bear any stressing, but une ravissante promenade, une très intelligente fille, are unfortunately often heard.
3. A certain number of adjectives in daily use are always placed before the noun. No reason can be given for this usage: it is impossible, for instance, to know, why we should say une lourde malle (adj. before), a heavy trunk, while we say une malle légère, A light trunk; une vieille maison, an old house, and une maison neuve, A New house, but the ear soon grows accustomed to these peculiarities.
The chief adjectives to be placed before the noun are the following, the same usage generally applying to their antonyms or opposites:
ancien, ex.: un ancien soldat, an old soldier;
beau, ant. laid or vilain, ex.: un beau tableau, une laid visage, une vilaine physionomie, A Fine picture, an ugly face, an ugly physiognomy;
bon or brave, ant. mauvais or méchant, ex.: un bon devoir, un mauvais devoir, A GOoD ExERCISE, A POOR EXERCISE; un bon garçon or un brave garçon, un méchant homme, A GOOD FEllow, A bad man;
grand or gros and ant. petit, ex.: une grande maison, une grosse mouche, un petit oiseau, A Large house, a big fly, a little bird;
haut, ex.: une haute tour, A high tower;
jeune and ant. vieux: ex.: un jeune professeur, une vieille histoire, a young professor, An old story;
long and ant. court, ex.: un long discours, un court récit, A Long speech, A Short account;

> LOURD, ex.: un lourd paquet, A HEAVY PARCEL; RICHE and ant. PAURE, ex.: un riche banquier, un pauvr: commis, A RICH BANKER, A PORR CLERK;
> VRAI and ant. FAUX, ex.: un urai gentilhomme, une. fausse comtesse, A REAL ARISTOCRAT, A SHAM COUNTESS.
6. How do you form the comparative degree in French?
a) Equality is denoted by AUSSI.... QUE (as. . . . as), ex. : je suis aussi grand que lui (est), I am as tall as he is. So... that is translated by Si... QUe, ex.: so high that i can not reach it, si haut que je ne peux y atteindre.
b) Superiority is denoted by Plus... Que (more... than), ex.: il est plus vieux que moi, he is older than I am.

## Note.

More than followed by a number is translated by plus de and not plus que, ex.: more than ten times, plus de dix fois.
e) Inferiority is denoted by moins... Que (less... than), ex.: elle est moins charmante que sa sœur, SHe is less Charming than her sister.

## 7. How is the superlative formed in French?

By prefixing le plus, (masc.) la plus, (fem.) les plus, (plur.) to the adjective, ex.: le match le plus intéressant, la partie la plus captivante, the most interesting match, the most exciting game; les chevaux les plus sauvages, the wildest horses.

## Note.

Both much and very are translated by très, ex.: very beautiful. much admired, très beau. très admiré.

## 8. Are there any irregularities in the comparative or superlative degree in French?

Yes, in the following adjectives:
Bon, good, comp., meilleur, better, sup., LE meilleur, the best;
MAUVAIS, bad, comp., PIRE, worse, sup., LE PIRE, the worst;
Petit, little, comp., moindre, less, sup., le moin-DRE, the least.

## 9. What is meant by the "agreement" of adjectives?

French adjectives assume both the gender and the number of the nouns to which they are related: this is called the agreement of adjectives (accor:l de l'adjectif) : ex.: un devoir trop long, une leçon trop longue, TOO LONG AN EXERCISE, TOO LONG A LeSSON ; vos leçons sont trop courtes, YOUR LeSSONS ARE TOO SHORT.

## Note.

1. When an adjective is related to two nouns, one of which is fem. while the other is masc., the adj. should be in the masc., but it is better to place the masc. noun near it, ex.: Chambres et appartements meublés, FURNISHED ROOMS AND APARTMENTS;
2. The two adjectives Demi, half, and nu, bare, hyphenated with a noun, are invariable; ex. : une demi-heure, half an hour; nu-tête, bare-headed;
3. Avoir l'air, to seem, to look, requires a different agreement according to its meaning: when it means an habitual appearance, the adjective should agree with AIR and consequently be in the masc. sing.; if it means an accidental appearance, the adjective should agree with the subject of the sentence; ex.: les tigres ont toujours l'air méchant, tigers always look wicked; l'ourse avait l'air méchante ce matin, the SHE-bEAR LOOKED WICKED THIS MORNING.

## B. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

The adjectives thus called are, 1. possessive, 2 . demonstrative, 3. interrogative, 4. indefinite, 5. numeral.
I. POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES

1. What are the possessive adjectives in French?

|  | Masc. | Fem. | Plur. |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| My | mon | ma | mes |
| Thy | ton | ta | tes |
| His |  |  |  |
| Her | son | sa | ses |
| Its | son |  |  |
| Ones |  |  | notre |
| Our | notre | notre |  |
| Your | votre | votre | vos |
| Their | leur | leur | leurs. |

## Note.

1. For the sake of euphony mon, ton, son, though exclusively masc., are placed before nouns, even though feminine, beginning with a vowel or a mute H ; ex.: MY SOUL, mon âme, your story, ton histoire, not ma âme, ta histoire.
2. Ton, ta, tes are constantly heard in friendly conversation (tutoiement); this is a habit of the language and not a special idiom as with Quakers.
3. one's does not exist in French and it is a great shortcoming: to lose one's money and he has lost his money are both translated by: perdre son argent; il a perdu son argent.
4. mon, m.A, mes are frequently used where my is dropped in addressing people; ex.: thank you, uncle, merci, mon oncle; YES, SISTER, oui, ma sour; dear friends, mes chers amis.

## 2. What is the agreement of son, sa?

SON, SA, agree in gender and number with the noun following, whereas in English the possessor always governs and not the object possessed; so He sold his house and she sold her house are translated il rendit sa maison, elle vendit sa maison; son fils (HIS or HER SON) can be said equally wei: of a father or a mother.

## II. DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES

## 1. What are the demonstrative adjectives?

The demonstrative adjectives, so called because they point out some object and are generally accompanied by a gesture, are CE.........CI corresponding to THIS, CE.........LÀ corresponding to THAT, and CE.......LÀ-bAS, corresponding to YONDER; ex.: THIS LITTLE BOOK, ce petit livre-ci; THAT big dictionary, ce gros dictionnaire-là; yonder STEEPLE, ce clocher là-bas, or ce clocher-là là-bas.

## Note.

1. CI is a contraction of ICI;
2. Ce...Ci, CE...La, spelt CECI and cela, correspond to the pronouns this, that; ex.: Remember this, rappelez vous ceci; write that down, notez cela;
3. CI and la are left out when the meaning is clear: ce livre, ce clocher.

## 2. What modifications do the demonstrative adjectives undergo?

Ce, masc., becomes Cet before a vowel or a mute H ; ex.: this atlas, cet atlas, , THAT man, cet homme: Cette is the feminine of CE and Cet; ex. : that of.d FENCE, cette vieille barrière;

Ces is the plural both masc. and fem.; ex.: those HORSES AND COWS, ces chevaux (masc.) et ces vaches (fem).

## III. INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES

## What are the interrogative adjectives?

In English there are two interrogative adjectives, What and which (more definite than What). Which? has no equivalent in French and it is a pity. What? is translated by

Sing. Quel (masc.), Quelle (fem.)
Plur. Quels (masc.), Quelles (fem.).
Ex.: What bOok, WHAT bOOKS DO yOU READ? quel livre, quels livres lisez-vous? WHAT sčfiocr., What schools do you mean? de quelle école, de quelles écoles parlez-vous?

## Note.

Quel is also exclamative: ex.: what a man! quel homme! what soldiers! quels soldats!

## IV. INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES

They are:
aucun, no
autre, other
chaque, every, each
même, same
maint, many a
plusieurs, several
certain, certain, some
divers, sundry
quelconque, whatever quelque, some, a few quel que, whatever
tel, such
tout, all, the whole.

## Note.

Plusieurs does not mean many, but several or a few, ex.: plusieurs cuves sont sortis des limites, several bOYS, OR A FEW BOYS, BROKE BOUNDS.

V. NUMERALS

## 1. What are the cardinal numerals?

| 1 un, une | 17 dix-sept |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2 deux | 18 dix-huit |
| 3 trois | 19 dix-neuf |
| 4 quatre | 20 vingt |
| 5 cinq | 21 vingt-et-un |
| 6 six | 30 trente |
| 7 sept | 40 quarante |
| 8 huit | 50 cinquante |
| 9 neuf | 60 soixante |
| 10 dix | 70 soixante-dix |
| 11 onze | 80 quatre-vingts |
| 12 douze | 90 quatre-vingt-dix |
| 13 treize | 100 cent (not un cent) |
| 14 quatorze | 1000 mille (not un mille) |
| 15 quinze | a million, un million |
| 16 seize | a billion, un milliard. |

2. What is to be noticed in the formation of cardinal numerals?
a) From un up to SEIZE they are mere contractions of the latin numerals.
b) Dix-sept, dix-huit, dix-neuf consist of DIX (ten) to which SEPT, HUIT, NEUF are added.
c) $21,31,41,51,61,71$ insert ET between the two numbers: vingt-et un, trente-et un, quarante-etun, cinquante-et-un, soixante-et-un, soixante-etonze; the other numbers are formed as in English: TWENTY-TWO, vingt-deux; SIXTY-NINE, soixanteneuf; EIGHTY-FIVE, quatre vingt-cinq;
d) VINGT, CENT take an s only when preceded by another number; ex.: quatre-vingts (80), trois
cents (300), but when they are also followed by another number they are invariable; ex.: quatre-vingt-neuf (89), trois cent quatre (304);
c) Cent and mille are not followed by et; ex.: cent deux, A HUNDRED AND Two; mille dix-sept, ONE THOUSAND AND SEVENTEEN;
$f$ ) the final consonants in DEUX, TROIS, CINQ, SIX, SEPT, HUIT, NEUF, dix, VINGT, are not sounded before another consonant, but are sounded before a vowel or a mute H ; ex.: trois heures trois minutes (three minutes past three) is pronounced troizheures troi-minutes;
g) HUIT JCIURS simply means a week, and QUINZE JOURS a fortnight.

## 3. Hew do you form ordinal numerals?

By adding ième (corresponding to the Latín imusi to the cardinal form; ex.: trois-ième, THIRD.

1st premier
2nd deuxième
3rd troisième
4th quatrième
5th cinquième
6th sixième
7th septième
8th huitième
9 th neuvième
10th dixième
11th onzième
12th douzième
13th treizième
14th quatorzième
15th quinzième
16 th seizième

17th dix-septième
18th dix-huitième
19th dix-neuvième
20th vingtième
21 st vingt-et-unième
22nd vingt-deuxième
30th trentième
31 st trente-et-unième
40th quarantième
50 th cinquantième
60th soixantième
70th soixante-dixième
80th quatre-vingtième
90th quatre-vingt-dixième
100th centième
1000 th millième.

## Note.

Fractions are indicated in French as in English by the ordinal number, with these exceptions: half is translated by moitié or demi. THIRD" " le tiers fourth " " le quart.

## 4. Does the French language use an ordinal number in all cases in which English uses it?

No, the French language uses the cardinal number instead of the ordinal;
a) in speaking of days of the month except the first; ex.: November fourth, le quatre novembre;
b) in giving the order of succession of kings, except the first; ex.: Louis the Fourteenth, Louis Quatorze; George the Third lost America, Georges Trois perdit l'Amérique;
c) in speaking of the books and chapters of a literary work, except the first, ex. : book the second, livre deux; chapter the tenth, chapitre dix.

## 5. How do the French express the time?

The time between the half hour and the hour is read as follows:
It is twenty five minutes to six, il est six heures moins vingt-cinq (observe that o'clock is left out in English and minutes in French). It is a Quarter to twelve (noon), il est midi moins le quart, or moins un quart.
The time between the hour and the half is read as follows:
It is ten past nine, il est neuf heures dix.
It is a quarter past twelve (midnight), il est minuit ct quart.

It is half past one, il cst une heure et demie. Idioms.-It has just struck one, wne heure vient de sonner. At what time? à quelle heure? At two sharp, on the stroke of two, sur le coup de deux heures, à deux heures sonnant, à deu.x heures juste.
How old are you? Quel âge avez-vous? I am seventeen, J'ai dix-sept ans.

Résumé

## What rules are exemplified in the following phrases or words?

Your cousin is cheerful, Her expression is never severe,
Your daughter is mute, A truly Christian woman, The magpie is both timid and thievish,

Disobedient boys are often punished, My friendly rebukes,
All the trees and all the flowers.

You fat, lazy fellow!
You little braggart (fem.)!
The white mare and the gray one,

Two white houses, White wreaths,

Votre cousine est gaie.
Son expression n'est jamais sévère.
Votre fille est muette.
Une vraie chrétienne.
La pie est peureuse et voleuse.

Les élèves indociles sont souvent punis.
Mes reproches amicaux.
Tous les arbres et toutes les fleurs.

Gros paresseux!
Petite vantarde!
La jument blanche et $l a$ grise.

Deux maisons blanches.
De blanches guirlandes.

This stream, though wider, is more transparent,

Her teeth were as white as ivory,
So white that they dazzled one,
I have told you more than twenty times,

The roughest individual, He was much dreaded,

Her big boys and girls,
The boys become less gawky,
The girls are rather less rude,
Not very popular boys and girls,
Knowing it, they look uneasy,
To-day they looked happy,

His tact, his intelligence,

Your nephew and niece, To die for one's country, Joan of Arc died for her country,
You shall be there, daughter,

Cette rivière quoique plus large est plus transparente.
Ses dents étaient aussi blanches que l'ivoire.
Si blanches qu'elles éblouissaient.
Plus de vingt fois je vous ai dit.

L'individu le plus brusque.
Il était très redouté.

Ses grands garçons et ses grandes filles.
Les garçons deviennent moins lourdauds.
Les filles sont un peu moins impolies.
Des filles et des garçons peu aimés.
Le sachant, ils ont l'air inquiet.
Aujourd'hui ils avaient l'air contents.

Son tact (masc.), son intelligence (fem.).
Ton nevell et $t a$ nièce.
Mourir pour sa patrie.
Jeanne d'Arc mourut pour sa patrie.
Vous y serez, ma fille.

She lost her husband and her sister,
He lost his wife and his son,

This baby, this angel,
This splendid man, this hero,
This good woman,
What monk appears in "Romeo and Juliet"?
"What nun appears in "Measure for Measure"?

What a charming part!
Two hundred or two hundred and fifty men,
Eighty men and eighty-two women,

The Tenth chapter of the History of James the Second,

Elle perdit son mari et sa sœur.
Il perdit sa femme et son fils.

Ce bébé, cet ange.
Cet homme admirable, ce héros.
Cette femme de bien.
Quel moine paraît dans Roméo ct Julictte?
Quelle religieuse parait dans Mesure pour Mesure?
Quel rôle charmant!
Deux conts à deux cent cinquante hommes.
Quatre-vingts hommes et quatre - vingt - dcux femmes.
Le chapitre dix de l'histoire de Jacques Deux.

## IV

## PRONOUNS

This chapter will deal with:
A. Personal Pronouns (pronoms personnels)
B. Reflexive "
C. Possessive "
D. Demonstrative "
E. Relative "
F. Interrogative "
G. Indefinite "
(pronoms réfléchis)
(pronoms possessifs)
(pronoms démonstratifs)
(pronoms relatifs)
(pronoms interrogatifs)
(pronoms indéfinis)

## A. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

1. Give a list of the personal pronouns in the nominative?

| Je | I |
| :--- | :--- |
| Tu | Thou |
| Il | He, it |
| Elle | She, it |
| Nous | We |
| Vous | You |
| Ils | They |
| Elles | They |

Note.

1. These pronouns correspond exactly to the English pronouns. It should however be noticed that, while the French language, having no neuter nouns, has no equivalent for IT, there are two French forms translating THEy;
2. The inversion of the pronoun, ex.: said he, dit-il, CRIED THEY, s'écrièrent-ils, is not only possible as in English, but is in constant use;
3. $T u$, thou, is in constant use in friendly conversation.

## 2. Give a list of the same pronouns in the accusative?

| Me | Me |
| :--- | :--- |
| Te | Thee |
| Le | Him, it |
| La | Her, it |
| Nous | Us |
| Vous | You |
| Les | Them |

Note.

1. These pronouns are always placed before the verb and not after, as in modern English, (old English: till death us do part) ; ex.: I hear you, je vous entends (I you hear); I shall give it to you, je vous le donnerai (I you it shall give) ; however, the pronoun follows the imperative, as in English; ex.: call him early, appelez-le de bonne heure.
2. Le often represents a whole proposition, and plays the part of so; ex.: if you can come early, do so, si vous pouvez venir tôt, faites-le.

## 3. Are there any other French personal pronouns?

The two lists above correspond to what English grammarians call conjunctive personal pronouns, because they are intimately joined to the verb. Besides these there are others called disjunctive, because they are separated from the verb. (1)
They are:

| Moi | I, me, to me |
| :--- | :--- |
| Toi | Thou, thee, to thee |
| Lui | He, him, to him, to her |
| Elle | She, her |
| Nous | We, us, to us |
| Vous | You, to you |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Eux } \\ \text { Elles }\end{array}\right\}$ | They, them, to them |

[^4]These pronouns have no equivalent in English and consequently ought to be examined more closely than the others.
They are used a) exclamatively; ex.: I! DO SUCH A thing! moi! faire une telle chose! - b) in elliptical sentences answering a question; ex.: wно has just rung the bell? - I, he, they (did). Qui vient de sonner? moi, lui, eux;- c) as genitives (OF) or datives (TO) and generally after prepositions ( POUR, for, AVEC, with, SANS, without, etc.). Ex.: we were speaking of them, nous parlions d'eux; COME WITH ME, venez avei moi.

## Note.

1. The emphasis of the pronoun is marked in French by its repetition, ex.: I SAID no, moi, j'ai dit non; we did not run away, nous, nous ne nous sommes pas enfuis.
2. When there are two subjects, one of which is a pronoun, the pronoun is also repeated; ex.: your SISter and we shall wait here, votre scur et nous, nous attendrons ici.

## 4. What is the exact meaning and use of lui?

Lui in the nominative and the accusative refers only to masc. nouns; ex.: Lui! reculer! jamais! He! FALL bACK! NEVER! avec lui, WITH HIM; but, in the dative, it refers to both genders: je lui écris means indifferently I am writing $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { TO Him. } \\ \text { TO HER. }\end{array}\right.$ It is a serious mistake to confuse LUi and LE, LA, to say, for instance, je lui vois instead of je le vois, I SEe him, or je la parle instead of je lui parle, I SPEAK TO HER.

## Note.

After the two verbs entendre, to hear, and voir, to SEE, lui is frequently used instead of le, la, but in this case the object following entendre or voir is always found to be accompanied by an adjective indicating admiration or contempt; ex.: je lui ai vu faire des exploits extraordinaires, I SAW him perform wonderful feats; je lui ai entendu dire des choses absurdes, I HEARD HIM SAY ABSURD THINGS.

## 5. What is the meaning and use of leur?

LeUr is a) a possessive adjective meaning their; ex.: leur livre, leurs livres, THEIR BOOK, THEIR Books; b) a dative of the personal pronoun ils, THEY; ex.: parlez leur, SPEAK TO THEM.

## 6. What is the meaning and use of en?

En (Latin Inde, thence) still preserves its use as an adverb; ex.: $j$ 'en viens, I COME FROM there; but it is more frequently used as a pronoun corresponding to of it, AbOUT it; ex.: nous en reparlerons, we shall speak of it again ; it is also very frequently used as a partitive corresponding to some, any; ex.: have you any (tobacco)? - Yes, I have some left, en avezvous? oui, il m'en reste;
the habit of using en in this connexion has gradually been extended to many sentences which in English do not include some of any; ex.: we have not any (dictionary)-BUY one; nous n'en avons pas-achetez-en un.

## 7. What is the meaning and use of $y$ ?

Y (Latin ibi, there) has also an adverbial use; ex.: $j$ j'y habite, I live there; j'y vais, I am going there, and a pronominal use; ex.: $j$ 'y pensais, I was thinking of it.

## B. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

1. What are the reflexive pronouns in French?

They are:

| me |
| :--- |
| te |

se
nous
vous
se $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { myself } \\
\text { thyself, yourself } \\
\text { himself } \\
\text { herself } \\
\text { itself } \\
\text { one's self } \\
\text { ourselves } \\
\text { yourselves } \\
\text { themselves }\end{array}\right.$

Ex.: je me brosse, I bRush myself; elle se lave. SHE WASHES HERSELF; se blâmer c'est se corriger, TO BLAME ONE'S SELF IS TO IMPROVE ONE'S SELF.

## Note.

1. These pronouns are exactly the same as the personal pronouns in the accusative with the exception of SE (Latin SE or SESE).
2. Being objects they are placed before the verb.
3. What is the meaning and use of moi-même, toi-même, lui-même, etc.?

| Moi-même | myself |
| :--- | :--- |
| Toi-même | thyself, yourself |
| Lui-même | himself, itself |
| Elle-même | herself, itself |
| Soi-même | one's self |
| Nous-mêmes | ourselves |
| Vous-mêmes | yourselves |
| Eux-mêmes |  |
| Elles-mêmes | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { themselves }\end{array}\right.$ |

a) These differ entirely from the reflexive pronouns inasmuch as they are never used as objects except directly and after prepositions like À, DE, POUR, CONTRE, etc., in which case même, mêmes is frequently omitted; ex.: I WORK FOR MYSELF, je travaille pour moi-même or pour moi; THEY THINK only of themselves, ils ne pensent qu'à euxmêmes, or à eux; TO THINK OF ONE'S SELF, ṭenser à soi (-même) ;
b) they are frequently used as subjects in apposition, 1. in cases in which they correspond to myself, thyself, etc.; ex.: I shall write this myself, j'écrirai ceci moi-même; 2. in cases in which they correspond to I myself, he himself, etc., or to even I, even he, etc.; ex.: moi-même j'eus peur, EVEN I WAS FRIGHTENED, or I MYSELF WAS FRIGHTENED.
The meaning would be the same if one should say: même moi, j'eus peur.

## C. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

## 1. What are the possessive pronouns that refer to only one person?

They are:
in English :
mine
thine
his, hers, its own, one's
in French:
le mien, la mienne (sing) les miens, les miennes (pl.)
le tien, la tienne (sing.)
les tiens, les tiennes (pl.)
le sien, la sienne (sing.)
les siens, les siennes ( pl .)

## Note.

These pronouns agree with the object possessed (which they represent) and not, as in English, with the possessor. Speaking of a dog, the phrases he lost his and she lost hers will both be translated by il perdit le sien, elle perdit le sicn, because the pronoun refers to a masc. sing., chien.

## 2. What are the possessive pronouns that refer to several persons?

They are:
in English: in French:
le nôtre, la nôtre (sing.) les nôtres (pl.)
le vôtre, la vôtre (sing.) les vôtres (pl.)
theirs
le leur, la leur (sing.)
les leurs (pl.)

## Note.

1. These pronouns agree with the object possessed: WE ATE OURS is translated by nous avons mangé le nôtre, if the subject is un gâteau (A CAKE) - nous avons mangé. la nôtre. if it is une tarte (A PIE) nous avons mangé les nôtres, if it is several gâteaux or several tartes;
2. notice that notre (poss. adj.) has no circumflex, but le nôtre (poss. pron.) has one:
3. notice, above all, that possessive pronouns are always preceded by le, la, les.

## 3. What is the French for it is mine, it is ours, etc.

These phrases are translated by c'est à moi, c'est $\grave{a}$ nous, etc., using the personal instead of the possessive pronoun; ex.: whose ball is This?
it is nót mine, I tilink it is Tom's; à qui est cette balle? ce n'est pas à moi, je crois que c'est à Tom.

## Note.

In the plural, speaking of stamps, for instance, we should say: ils sont à Tom, rather than c'est à Tom.
4. What is the meaning of celui de, celle de, etc.?

These possessives correspond to both that of, Those of, and to the possessive case; ex.: it is Tom's (or it is that of Tom) is translated by c'est celui or c'est celle de Tom.

## D. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

1. What is the meaning and use of celui-ci, celui-lá?

Sing. Celui-ci (masc), celle-ci (fem.)
P1. Ceux-ci (masc), celles-ci (fem.)
and Sing. Celui-là (masc), celle-là (fem.)
P1. Ceux-là (masc), celles-là (fem.)
These demonstratives correspond to THIS, тHAT, those (speaking of things) and to THIS ONE, THAT ONE, or to THE FORMER, THE LATTER, (speaking of people) ; ex.: (speaking of pens) I prefer these, j’aime mieux celles-ci; (speaking of soldiers) I KNOW THAT ONE, $j e$ connais celui-là; (speaking of Grant and Lee) the former was a great soldier, the latter a deep strategist, celui-là fut un grand soldat, celui-ci un profond stratège.
2. What is the meaning and use of celui qui, celle qui, etc.?

Sing. Celui qui (masc.) celle qui (fem.)
Pl. Ceux qui (masc.) celles qui (fem.)
are said both of persons and things and correspond to he who, that which, and the one who, the ONE WHICH; ex.: (speaking generally) He who RUNS CAN READ, celui qui court peut lire; (speaking of certain persons in particular) I KNOW THE ones who stand there, je connais ceux qui sont là debout; WHO IS THE ONE WHO IS RUNNING? qui est celui qui court?

## Note.

Celui quir is abbreviated as Qui in proverbial sentences,
ex.: qui dort dine, he who sleeps needs no dinner.

## 3. What is the meaning of ceci, cela?

These demonstratives, abbreviated from celui-Cl, CELUI-LÀ, correspond to THIS, THAT; ex.: REMEMBER THIS, rappelez-vous ceci; NEVER SAY A WORD of that, ne dites mot de cela.

## Note.

Ça is a colloquial contraction of Cela; ex.: tell us тНАТ, dites-nous cà.

## 4. What is the meaning and use of ce?

Ce or c' (before vowels) corresponds to IT; ex.: It is not true, ce n'est pas vrai; it is his wit, (it is) not his ideas that i enjoy in Shaw, c'est son esprit, ce ne sont pas ses idées que j’aime chez Shaze.

## Note.

1. Ce is replaced by il when que or de follows; ex.: il est urai que: it is true that;
2. c'est is used where English has he is, She is, referring to a person already mentioned; ex. : wно IS this girl? she is a French girl; qui est cette jeune fille? c'est une française.
3. Súr ce means sur cela, upon this, whereupon; ex.: Whereupon he said good-bye: sur ce il fit ses adieux.

## 5. What is the meaning and use of ce qui, ce que?

Ce qui, ce que correspond to both what and which; ex.: do not believe what he says, ne croyez pas ce qu'il dit; you believe everybody, WHICH IS AN EXCESS, vous croyez tout le monde, cé qui est exagéré.

## E. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

The relative pronouns in English are:
N. who
G. whose
D. to whom
A. whom
which
of which
to which
which

## 1. What are the relative pronouns in French?

There are two sets of relative pronouns in French.
a) Nom. qui, who, which.

Gen. de qui, whose, of whom, of which.
Dat. à qui, to whom, to which.
Acc $\left.\quad \begin{array}{ll}q u e & \text { (with a verb) } \\ q u i & \text { (with a preposit.) }\end{array}\right\}$ whom, which.
This set is used in the plural as well as in the singular. Ex. : THE DOCTOR WHO LOOKED AFTER MF, le médecin qui me soignait; A PLAY WHICH DE.

LIGHTED ME, unc pièce qui m'a ravi; THE SINGERS WHOM WE HEARD, les chanteurs que nous entendions; THE TEACHER WITH WHOM I STUDIED, le maître avec qui j"ai travaillé.

## Note.

DE QUI is frequently replaced by DONT, corresponding to whose but followed by the article; ex.: an atr' lete whose powerful body, un athlète dont le corps robuste...

## Singular:

b) N. lequel (masc.), laquelle (fem.) who, which G. duquel (masc.), de laquelle (fem.) $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { of whom } \\ \text { of which }\end{array}\right.$ D. auquel (masc.), à laquelle (fem.) $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { to whom } \\ \text { to which }\end{array}\right.$ A. lequel (masc.), laquelle (fem.) whom, which

## Plural:

N. les quels (masc.), les quelles (fem.) who, which G. des quels (masc.) des quelles (fem.) \{ $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { of whom } \\ \text { of which }\end{array}\right.$ D. aux quels (masc.) aux quelles (fem.) $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { to whom } \\ \text { to which }\end{array}\right.$ A. les quels (masc.) les quelles(fem.) whom, which Ex.: le diner auquel je fais allusion, the dinner to which i am referring; la voiture dans laquelle nous sommes venus, THE CARRIAGE IN which we drove here.

## Note.

Lequel, lesquels is hardly used except in the genitive, the dative (le diner auquel), and the accusative after a preposition (la voiture dans laquelle.) but it should always be used in these cases when referring to animals or things.

## 2. Decline the relative pronouns as their usage can be inferred from the two declensions above.

## Singular:

Nom. Dui (persons and things)
Gen. Dost, de qui (persons) ; dort, duquel (things)
Dat. A quit, auquel (persons); auquel, (things)
Acc. Que (persons and things) with a verb.
Qui (persons); lequel, laquelle (things) with a preposition.

## Plural:

Nom. Qui (persons and things)
Gen. De quid, dont (persons and things) ; dort, desduels (things).
Dat. A quid, auxquels (pers. and things); auxquels (things).
Acc. Que (pers. and things) with verb.
Qui (persons); les quels (things) with a preposition.

Note.
After ce and lien, the relative is quot; ex.: what I was thinking of, ce à quoi ie pensais; there was nothing i could make a fire with, il $n$ 'y avail rien avec quoi je pouvais faire du feu.

## F. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

1. What interrogative pronouns are used in speaking of persons?

Nom. Que? who?
Gen. De qui? of whom?
Dat. A que? to whom?
Acc. Qui? whom?

Ex.: Qui est là? who is There? à qui écrive.zvous? TO WHOM ARE YOU WRITING? qui sonnes vous? WHOM ARE YOU RINGING UP?

## Note.

Instead of QUI in the nom. colloquial French often uses QUI EST-CE QUI? ex.: qui est-ce qui vous appelle? WHO CALLS YOU?
2. What are the interrogative pronouns in other cases?

Nom. Quoi? que? qu'est-ce qui? what?
Gen. De quoi? of what?
Dat. A quoi? to what?
Acc. Que? qu'est ce que? what?
Ex.: What? What are you saying? quoi? que dites-vous? or qu'est-ce que vous dites? WHAT DO YOU WANT? que voulez-vous or qu'est-ce que vous voulez? What has happened to you? que vous est-il arrivé?
3. What is to be noticed about the translation of what in the nominative?

What? by itself is translated by quoi ?, Followed by a preposition it is translated by QUe? or by qu'est-ce qui? Ex.: Wilat? what is happening? quoi? $q u$ ( que) arrive-t-il? or qu'est-ce qui arrive?
4. Is it possible to translate which? accurately into French?
Which? by itself is translated by Lequel? LesQuels; ex.: (speaking of horses) which will you ride? lequel voulez-vous monter?
Followed by a noun it can only be translated by a circumlocution: which mare? laquelle (des deux juments?)

## G. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

## 1. What are the indefinite pronouns in French?

They are:
on, one
quelqu'un, somebody
personne, nobody
quelque chose, something
rienn, nothing aucun, nul, no
$u n$, one
chacun, every, each plusiours, several, some certains, certain, some tel, such
tout, all, the whole quiconque, whoever
quoi que, whatever
autre, other
2. Which indefinite pronoun is the most frequently used in French?

It is on (Lat. homo, man) which corresponds not only to ONE, (ex.: ONE OFTEN THINKS, on croit souvent) but also corresponds to:
a) A mAN, WE, PEOPLE, IT is (said, related, etc.); ex.: we or people say wrongly, on dit à tort;
b) SOMEBODY, THEY; ex.: SOMEBODY Is KNOCKing, on frappe; THEY work in the Capitol, on travaille au Capitole;
c) you; ex.: you start from Pennsylvania station, on part de la gare de Pensylvanie:
d) passive constructions; ex.: BOYS ARE SUPPOSED to notice nothing, on imagine que les garçons ne remarquent rien.
3. What difference is there between personne and une personne?

Personne means nobody, while une personne means somebody, some person ; ex. : une personne est venue, SOMEBODY CAME.
The word person is followed in English by he, but une personne in French is feminine even when the speaker means a man.

Idiom. I don't know anỳbody wiser is translated : je ne connais personne de plus sage, (the French adds DE).

## 4. What is the meaning of plusieurs?

Plusieurs in modern French never means many but several, i.e. from three to seven or eight; ex.: plusieurs fois, several times.

## 5. What is the meaning and use of rien?

Rien (lat. rem, thing) originally meant something, anything. It has preserved this meaning in selitences like: Avez-vous jamais vu rien de plus beau? did you ever see anything more beautiful?
In most cases, however, it means nothing. It should be placed in simple tenses after the verb; ex.: je ne vois rien, I see nothing; in compound tenses between the auxiliary and the past participle; ex.: je n'ai rien entendu, I heard nothing.

Notice in rien de plus beau the addition of DE after RIEN.

## Résumé

## What rules are exemplified in the following?

Personal, Pronouns:

Ils chantent, Elles chantent, Tu parles trop,
"Bien!" dira-t-il,
Maman nous appelle, Je te le rappellerai,

Si vous pouvez m'aider faites $l e$ pensez-y souvenez-vous en

Toi! tu es un brave!
"Qui viendra avec moi?""Moi",
Charles et toi, vous resterez
Lui est un sot,
Je lui ai dit que j'irais, avec lui,
Je lui ai dit que j'irais avec elle,

Qui leur a pris leur chien?

J'y réfléchirai et vous en écrirai.

Du bon sens! Il n'en a pas!
$\{$ They sing.
You speak too much.
"Right!" he will say.
Mother calls us.
$I$, shall remind you of $1 t$.
If you can help me do so, do it. think of it. remember it.

You are a brave man!
Who is coming with me? -I am.
You and Charles will stay.
He is a fool.
I told him I would go with him.
I told her I would go with her.

Who stole their dog from them?

I will think it over and write you about it.

Sense! He has none!

Boston! J'en arrive! J'y étais il y a six heures!

Reflexive:
Va te brosser, Elle se brosse,
Il est temps de se brosser,

Fais cela toi-même, Tu travailles pour toi,
Ta mère elle-même le sait,

Possessive:
Il a fini le sien (devoir), Elle a fini le sien (devoir),

Avez-vous fini les vôtres? (devoirs),
La salle de bains sera à vous, l'armoire à moi,

N'était elle pas à Louise? Non, celle de Louise est dans l'autre chambre,

Demonstrative:
Essayez celui-ci (rasoir), Celui-ci (Jackson) était démocrate, celui-là (Hamilton) fédéraliste,

Boston! I have just arrived from there! I was there six hours ago.

Go and brush yourself. She is brushing herself.
Now is the time to brush one's self.

Do that yourself.
You work for yourself.
Even your mother knows it.

He has finished his (task).
She has finished hers (task).

Have you finished yours? (tasks).
The bath room will be yours, the closet mine.

Was it not Louise's? No, Louise's is in the other room.

Try this one (razor).
The latter (Jackson) was a Democrat, the former (Hamilton) a Federalist.

Ceux qui arriveront en retard seront punis,
Celui que je vois dans le gymnase,
Qui n'aime me suive,
Montrez moi cela, Regardez (moi) çà!

Ce qu'il aime ce sont ses aises,
Qui était Rachel? C'était une actrice célèbre,

Il ne dit que ce qu'il veut dire.

Relative:
Le Français avec qui je correspondais,

La plume avec laquelle j'écrivais,
Les lettres que je gardais,
Les choses dont nous parlions,
Ce sur quoi je vous consulte,

Interrogative:
Qui va là? Qui cherchezvous?

Those who come late will be punished.
The one I see over there in the gymnasium.
(Let him) who loves me follow me.
Let me see that.
Just look at that!
What he loves is his own comfort.
Who was Rachel? She was a famous actress.

He only says what he wants to say.

The Frenchman with whom I used to correspond.
The pen with which I used to write.
The letters I used to keep.
The subjects about which we used to talk.
What I want your advice about.

Who goes there? Whom are you seeking?

Que lisez-vous? Qu'est-ce qui vous plait?
A quoi vous intéressezvous?
"Johnson m'a écrit"-"Ah!
Lequel des Johnson?"

Indefinite:
On parle toujours trop,
On sonne,
On chante en haut, On prend à gauche, $O n$ vous dira que...

Est-ce qu'il n'est venu personne?
Si, une personne est venue, Elle a dit qu'elle reviendrait,
Il n'y a personne de plus bête,
Je ne me rappelle rien, Je ne me suis rien rappelé, Ne vous rappelez-vous rien d'autre?

What do you read? What pleases you?
What do you take an interest in?
"Johnson has written me" -"Oh! Which Johnson ?"

One always says too much. Someone is ringing.
They are singing upstairs.
You turn to the left.
You will be told that...

Has no one come?

Yes, somebody did call. He said he would call again.
Nobody is more stupid.

I remember nothing.
I remembered nothing.
Don't you remember anything else?

## V

## VERBS

Plan of this chapter:
A. Introductory remarks on French verbs.
B. French conjugations.
C. Differences in the use of the tenses in French and in English - Interrogation - Negation.
D. Classes of Verbs (passive, intransitive, reflexive, reciprocal, impersonal, defective.)

## A. INTRODUCTORY REMARKS ON FRENCH VERBS

## 1. Are French verbs more difficult than English verbs?

The conjugation of the English verb is of unparalleled simplicity, the infinitive form undergoing only five changes (ex.: to walk, walking, walked, thou walkest, he walks, thou walkedst), and the consequence is that the conjugation of verbs in any other language is sure to appear complicated.
2. What are the chief differences between the French verb and the English verb?
a) Each person has its own particular ending in French, whereas in English the person is indicated only by the pronoun. For instance the word walk
has no definite meaning unless it is prefixed by I, we, you, they, whereas in French the personal endings vary. Ex.:

| I walk | je march e |
| :--- | :--- |
| We walk | nous march ons |
| You walk | vous march ez |
| They walk | ils march ent |

These personal endings have been bequeathed to the French language by the Latin conjugation: they no doubt lend to the language more accuracy, variety, and harmony ;
b) there is only one conjugation in English, but there are four in French, as there were four in Latin: AIMER (to love), FINIR (to finish), RECEVOIR (to receive), RENDRE (to render) are all conjugated according to different models because their endings (ER, IR, OIR, RE) are different ;
c) there are slight differences also between the tenses in French and in English, the advantage being in favor sometimes of one, sometimes of the other language :

1. The present progressive (I Am walking) and the emphatic present (I DO walk), so expressive in English, do not exist in French: je marche is the only form;
2. I walked or I was walking can be translated into French by: je marchais (imperfect), je marchai, (simple past), or j’ai marché (compound past) ; that is to say, the English language employs only two forms for the imperfect and
the simple past, and frequently uses one of them to translate the compound past or even the pluperfect ( $j$ 'avais marché) ; the consequence is that French is clearer;
3. The French language possesses a very convenient tense, viz., the past anterior, translated into English by the pluperfect but indicating that the action mentioned came before another; ex.: AFTER I had eaten I slept, après que j’us mangé, je dormis;
4. the French language lacks our very expressive double future (I shall walk, I will walk);
5. the imperative in French has only three persons and offers no real equivalent for let me walk:
6. the subjunctive in French has four tenses, instead of one, and is used not only in every case in which it is used in English but in many others in which the English language uses the past or the future: additional clarity and elegance are the result.

## B. FRENCH CONJUGATIONS

Division of this Section:
A) Preliminary.
B) Conjugation of Avoir (to have) and Etre (to be).
C) Conjugation of verbs in ER, IR, oir, and RE, with remarks on irregular verbs in frequent use.

## A. PRELIMINARY

## 1. Are there any means of simplifying French conjugations?

Since there is a special ending to each person of every tense, seventeen tenses to each verb, and, four different conjugations, the inference might be that there are hundreds of forms to be learnt in order to conjugate French verbs.
But it is not so, and it is much easier to conjugate a French verb than a Latin verb.

1. The endings of each tense in the plural of each conjugation are-with a very noticeable difference in the simple past (nous aimâmes, nous finimes, nous reçûmes, nous rendimes)-always ons, Ez, ENT, (nous aimons, vous aimez, ils aiment), so that we can be sure of three endings in six in every possible verb by merely remembering ons, EZ, ENT;
2. the endings peculiar to each tense, (for instance ais in the imperfect, RAI in the future, Rais in the conditional), are, with the exception of the past, the same in every conjugation, so that the moment we know one verb, we know the temporal endings (or particular tense endings) of all;
3. as irregular verbs are either in very frequent use or are, on the contrary, mere grammatical curiosities which even the French let alone, they are easily learnt ;
4. the conclusion is that French verbs are infinitely less difficult than some persons insist they are.
5. What is the best method for learning French verbs?

French verbs are quickly learned, not by parrotlike repetition, but 1 . by careful examination of their personal and temporal endings, (noticing numerous resemblances and occasional differences), and 2. by easy but frequent exercises on a variety of verbs suggested by another person; half an hour's real attention at the outset will secure results which seem marvelous only to the thoughtless.
3. What are the personal endings in the present indicative?

There are four conjugations:

1. Verbs the infinitive of which ends in ER; ex.: aimer
2. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. IR; ex.: finir
3. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. oir; ex.: recevoir
4. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. .. RE; ex.: rendre

## Present Indicative

Aimer:

| I'aime e | Je fin is |
| :--- | :--- |
| Tu aim es | Tu fn is |
| Il aim e | Il fin it |
| Nous aim ons | Nous fin issons |
| Vous aim ez. | Vous fin issez |
| Ils aim ent | Ils fin issent |

Recevoir:
Je reç ois
Tu reç ois
Il reç oit
Nous recev ons
Vous recevez
Ils reçoiv ent

Rendre:
Je rend s
Tu rond s
Il rend
Nous rend ons
Vous rend ez
Ils rend ent.

The syllables aim, fin, reç, rend are called the radical of the verbs AIM ER, FIN ir, rec evoir, and REND RE, that is to say the root syllable which does not change in the conjugation. The syllables added to the radical are called terminations or endings.
If we examine the terminations in the present indicative of the four verbs above we shall find:

1. that in the plural the terminations ons, ez, ent, are the same in the four conjugations:
2. that in the singular, a) the ending of the first person is s except in aimer; b) the ending of the second is s in all four conjugations; c) the ending of the third is T or D except in aimer; so that after all we need only observe that one form, viz. aime in j'aime and il aime, differs from the rest. Now it is all important to remember:
3. as stated above, that the endings ons, ez, ent are found in the plural of each tense in every conjugation;
4. that s in the second person singular is found in every tense of each conjugation;
5. that T or D in the third person singular is found in all conjugations but the first, except in the future and the imperative and subjunctive.

## 4. What are the temporal (or tense) endings in each conjugation?

The answer to this question should be preceded by observing the distinction between simple and compound tenses: simple tenses are those in which the verb consists of only one word; ex.: pres. j'aime, imp. j'aimais, simple past, jaimai; compound tenses consist of an auxiliary (avoir, то have or être, TO BE) followed by the past part. of the verb; ex.: compound past, j’ai aimé, future anterior, j’aurai aimé;
it being clear then that compound tenses always end with a past part. we need only give our attention to simple tenses in the following table:

Terminations of simple tenses in

Infinitive
Pres. Part.
Past. Part.
Indic. Pres.
" Imperfect j’aim ais
" Simple Past j’aim ai
" " Future j’aime rai
Conditional
Imperative
Subj. Present
" Imperfect

1. Aimer, er.
aim ant
aim é
j’aim e
j'aime rais
Aime
que j'aime
que j’aimuss e
2. Finir, ir.
finiss ant
fin:
je fin is
je finiss uis
je fin is
je fini rai
je fini rais
Fin is
que je finiss $e$
que je finiss $e$

## 3．Recevoir， <br> 4．Rendre，

Infinitive
Pres．Part．
Past．Part．
Indic．Pres．
＂Imperfect
Simple Past je reç us
＂Future je recev rai oir．
recev ant
reç $u$
je reç ois
je recev ais
＂＂Future
Conditional
Imperative
Subj．Present
Imperfect
je recev rais
Reç ois
que je reçoive
que je reçuss e

$$
r e .
$$

rend ant
rend $u$
je rend $s$
je rend ais
je rend is
je rend rai
je rend rais
Rend $s$
que je rend e
que je rendiss e

## Note．

1．The termination of the pres．part．is always

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 二 | 三 | 二 | imperfect－ future | － | $\begin{aligned} & \text { AIS - } \\ & \text { RAI } \end{aligned}$ |
| － | － | － | conditional－ | － | Rais |
| － | － | － | subj．pres．－ | － | E．．．－ |
| － | － | － | subj．imperf． | － | SE |

2．The termination of the present indic．，of the simple past，and of the imperative is s ，except in aimer：
The conclusion is that the terminations of all simple tenses，except the infinitive and past part．，are practi－ cally the same in every conjugation and can be learnt in a moment．

## Exercise

## 1．To what conjugation do the following verbs belong？

parler，to speak
courir，to run．
pourvoir，to provide
tendre，to stretch
venir，to come
lire，to read croire，to believe decevoir，to disappoint

## 2. What should be the personal pronoun with the following verbs?

| parlons | parliez | parleront | parleriez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| parlez | parlaient | parlerons | parleraient |
| parlent | parlions | parlerez | parlerions |
| courons. | couraient | courrez. | courraient |
| courez | courions | courront. | courriez |
| courent | couriez | courrons | courrions |
| tendons | tendiez | tendrons. | tendriez |
| tendez | tendaient | tendront | tendrions |
| tendent | tendions | tendrez | tendraient |

## 3. In what tense are the following verbs?

décev ant
parl ant
tend ant
je parl ais
je décev ais
je tend ais
je dírai
je croi rai
je tend rai
je parle rais je lir ar
je viend rais je li sais
je li rais que je lus se
que je vienn e je croir ais
que je lis e je cour rai
que je tend e je décev ais
que je vins se je viend rai
que je lus se je ven ais
que je crus se je viend rais

What is the formation or derivation of tenses in French?

The principal tenses in French are:

1. The present infinitive; ex.: aimer; add AI (1), you have the future; ex.: $j$ 'aimerai; "AIS, you have the conditional; ex. : $j$ 'aimerais;

[^5]2. the present participle; ex.: aim ant;
substitute ons for ANT you have the indic. pres. plural and the imperat. plural; ex.: aim ons; substitute AIS for ANT; you have the imperfect; ex. : j’aim ais;
substitute E for Ant; you have the subj. pres.; ex. : que jaime ;
3. the present indicative; ex.:
j’aime
similar to the imperat. sing.; ex.: aime;
4. the simple past in the second pers.; ex.: tu aim as; add se, you have the subj. imp., que j'aimas se;
5. the past participle; ex.: aimé, which terminates all compound tenses, viz. compound past, pluperfect, past anterior, future anterior, conditional past, subjunctive past, and subjunctive pluperfect.
These principal tenses ought to be particularly noticed in studying the irregular verbs.

## Auxiliaries: avoir, to have, and être, то ве.

## 1. What auxiliaries are used in conjugation?

In English то have and to be are used as auxiliaries in the conjugation both of transitive and intransitive verbs; ex.: I have come, I had walked, I shall have finished it then, I should have done it, I am going, I was waiting, I shall be Losing it, I was being Questioned; in French avoir, to have, is used as the auxiliary of transitive verbs; ex.: j’ai parlé, I have SPOKEN, and être, TO BE, is used as the auxiliary of intransitive and reflexive verbs; ex.: je suis
venu, I have come, elle était montźe, she had GONE UPSTAIRS, nous nous sommes fâchés, we have grown angry.
It is important, therefore, to give the conjugation of these two verbs at once, pointing out their irregularities.
2. What are the irregularities in the conjugation of avoir?

|  | " | " | " | past. part.: |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| " | " | " | " | sing. of indic | pres.: j'ai, |
| " | " | " | " | simple past: | j'eus, |
| " | " | " | " | future : | j’aurai (1), |
| " | " | " | " | onditional: | j'aur |
| " | " | " | " | subjunctive : | que |

All these irregularities can be traced to the Latin verb habere or to its transformations.
B. CONJUGATION OF AVOIR, TO HAVE, AND ETRE,

## 3. Conjugate the verb avoir.

Infinitive:
Present.
Avoir, to have.
Past.
Avoir eu, to have had.

[^6]
## Participle:

> Present.
> Ayant, having.
> Past.

Eu, had.
Compound.
Ayant eu, having had.
Indicative:
Present.
J'ai, I have
Tu as
Il a
Nous avons
Vous avez
Ils ont
Imperfect.
J'avais, I had, I was having
Tu avais
Il avait
Nous avions
Vous aviez
Ils. avaient
Simple Past.
J'eus, I had
Tu eus
Il eût
Nous eûmes
Vous eutes
Ils eurent

Compound Past.
J'ai eu, I have had
Tu as eu
Il a eu
Nous avons eu
Vous avez eu
Ils ont eu

Pluperfect.
J'avais eu, I had had, I had been having Tu avais eu
Il avait eu
Nous avions eu
Vous aviez eu
Ils avaient eu

Past Anterior.
J'eus eu, I had had
Tu eus eu
Il eut eu
Nous ê̂mes eu
Vous eûtes eu
Ils eurent eu

Future.
J'aurai, I shall have
Tu auras
Il aura
Nous aurons
Vous aurez
Ils auront

Future Anterior.
J'aurai eu, I shall have had.
Tu auras eu
Il aura eu
Nous aurons eu
Vous aurez eu
Ils auront eu
Conditional:

## Present.

J'aurais, I should have
Tu aurais
Il aurait
Nous aurions
Vous auriez
Ils auraient

## Past.

J'aurais eu, I should have had
Tu aurais eu
Il aurait en
Nous aurions eu
Vous auriez en
Ils auraient en

Imperative:
Que j’aie, let.me have Aie, have
Qu'il ait, let him have Ayons, let us have
Ayez, have
Qu'ils aient, let them have

Subjunctive:
Present.
Que j aie, that I may have
Que tu aies
Qu'il ait
Que nous ayons
Que vous ayez
Qu'ils: aient
Imperfect.
Que j'eusse, that I might have Que tu eusses
Qu'il eût
Que nous eussions
Que vous eussiez
Qu'ils eussent
Past.
Que j 'aie eu, that I may have had
Que tu aies eu
Qu'il ait eu
Que nous ayons cu
Que vous ayez eu
Qu'ils aient eu
Pluperfect.
Que j'eusse eu, that I might have had Que tu eusses eu
Qu'il eût eu
Que nous eussions eut
Que vous eussiez eu
Qu'ils eussent eu

## Note.

Compound tenses always seem puzzling at first, yet they are exactly similar in English and in French, as appears very clearly when one translates separately, Ex.: I should have had; divide: I Should have, $j$ jaurais + HAD, $c u=j$ jaurais cu.

## 4. Conjugate the verb être, to be.

Infinitive:
Present.
Etre, to be

Past.
Avoir été, to have been

Pres. Part.
Etant, being

Past. Part.
Eté, been
Compound Part.
Ayant ćté, having been

Indicative:
$\quad$ Present.
je suis, I am
Tu es
Il est
Nous sommes
Vous êtcs
Ils sont

Imperfect.<br>J' étais, I was<br>Tu étais<br>Il était<br>Nous étions<br>Vous étiez<br>Ils étaient

Simple Past.
Je fus, I was
Tu fus
Il fut
Nous fûmes
Vous fûtes
Ils furent

Compound Past.
J'ai été, I have been
Tu as été
Il a été
Nous avons été
Vous avez été
Ils ont été

Pluperfect.
J'avais été, I had been
Tu avais étć
Il avait été
Nous avions été
Vous aviez été
Ils avaient été

> Past Anterior.
> J'eus été, I had been
> Iu eus été
> Il eut été
> Nous cûmes été
> Vous ê̂tes été
> Ils eurent été

## Future.

Je serai, I shall be
Tu seras
Il sera
Nous serons
Vous serez
Ils seront

Future Anterior.
J'aurai êté, I shall nave been
Tu auras éts
Il aura été
Nous aurons été
Vous aurez été
Ils auront été

Conditional:
Present.
Je serais, I should be
Tu serais
Il serait
Nous serions
Yous seriez
Ils seraient

Past.<br>J'aurais été, I should have been Tu aurais été<br>Il aurait été,<br>Nous aurions été<br>Vous auriez été<br>Ils auraient été

Imperative:
Que je sois, let me be Sois, be
Qu'il soit, let him be
Soyons, let us be
Soyez, be
Qu'ils soient, let them be
Subjunctive:

## Present.

Que je sois, that I may be
Que tu sois
Qu'il soit
Que nous soyons
Que vous soyez
Qu'ils soient
Imperfect.
Que je fusse, that I might be Que tu fusses
Qu’il fût
Que nous fussions
Que vous fussiez
Qu'ils fussent

Past.
Que j’aie été, that I may have been
Que tu aies été
Qu'il ait été
Que nous ayons été
Que vous ayez été
Qu'ils aient été
Pluperfect.
Que j’eusse été, that I might have been Que tu eusses été Qu'il eût été Que nous eussions été Que vous eussicz été, Qu'ils eusseṇt été

## C. THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS

1. What are the four French conjugations?

French verbs are conjugated on four models according to the terminations of their infinitives.
1st conj.: verbs in
2nd "
3r, ex.: aim er
3rd "
4th "
"
"
"
2. Are the four conjugations equally important?

Most grammars very unwisely lead the student to imagine that it is so. In reality there are (according to Hatzfeld and Darmesteter's well-known Dictionary) only 20 verbs in RE, some 80 in oIR,

300 in IR, and all the other verbs (about 4,000) end in ER.
Whenever the French invent or adopt a new verb, they conjugate it on aimer (in a few cases on fin$i r)$, and for this reason the two conjugations in ER or IR are called "living" while the less important conjugations in oir and re are termed "dead." The conjugation in $E R$ is the easiest of the four and has only two irregular verbs in daily use.

$$
\text { First Conjugation (ER) } 4000 \text { Verbs. }
$$

## 3. Conjugate a verb in er. (1)

Infinitive:

> Present.
> Aim er $(2)$, to love
> Past.
> Avoir aim é, to have loved

Participle:
Present.
Aim ant, loving
Past.
Aim é, loved ... . Compound Past.

Ayant aimé, having loved

[^7]Indicative:

> Present.
> J'aim e, I love
> Tu aim es
> Il aim e
> Nous aim ons
> Vous aim ez
> Ils aim ent

Imperfect.
J'aim ais, I loved, I was loving
Tu aim ais
Il aim ait
Nous aim ions.
Vous aim iez
Ils aim èrent.
Simple Past.
J'aim ai, I loved
Tu aim as
Il aim a
Nous aim âme's
Vous aim âtes
Ils aim èrent
Compound Past.
J'ai aim é, I have loved
Tu as aim é
Il a aimé
Nous avons aimé
Vous avez aim é
Ils ont aim é

Pluperfect.
J'avais aim é, I had loved, 1 had been
Tu avais aim é [loving
Il avait aim é
Nous avions aim é
Vous aviez aim é
Ils avaient aim é

Past Anterior.
J'eus aim é, I had loved Tu cus aimé é Il eut aim é Nous êtmes aim é Vous cûtes aim é Ils eurent aim é

## Future.

J'aimer ai, I shall love
Tu aimer as
Il aimer a
Nous aimer ons
Vous aimer, ez
Ils aimer ont

Future Anterior.
J'aurai aim é, I shall have loved
Tu auras aimé
Il aura aim é
Nous aurons aim é
Vous aurez aim é
Ils auront aim é

Conditional:
Present.
J'aimer ais, I should love
Tu aimer ais
Il aimer ait
Nous aimer ions
Vous aimer iez
Ils aimer aient
Past.
J'aurais aim é, I should have loved「u aurais aim é
Il aurait aim é
Nous aurions aim é
Vous auriez aim é
Ils auraient aim é
Imperative:
Que j'aime, let me love Aim e, love
Qu'il aim e, let him love
Aim ons, let us love Aim ez, love
Qu'ils aim ent, let them love.

Subjunctive:
Present.
Que j’aim e, that I may love
Que tu aim es
Qu'il aime
Que nous aim ions
Que vous aim iez
Qu'ils aim ent

Imperfect.
Que j’aim asse, that I might love
Que tu aim asses
Qu'il aim ât
Que nous ain assions
Que vous aim assiez
Qu'ils aim assent
Past.
Que $j$ 'aie aim é, that I may have loved Que tu aies ain é
Qu'il ait aim é
Que nous ayons aim é
Que vous ayez aimé
Qu'ils aient aim é
Pluperfect.
Que j'eusse aim é, that I might have Que tu eusses aim é [loved
Qu'il ê̂t aim é
Que nous eussions ain é
Que vous eussiez aim é
Qu'ils eussent aim é
4. What is to be noticed in this conjugation?
a) That the radical AIM does not change.
b) That the simple past is in $A \mathrm{I}$, second person AS, and the past part is in E.
5. Are there any irregularities in the first conjugation?
a) Verbs in CER (ex.: percer, TO PIERCE) take a cedilla before $A$ and $o$, as otherwise the c would sound like k , ex.: il perça, HE PIERCED;
b) verbs in Ger (ex.: manger, to eat) take all e before $A$ and 0 , as otherwise the $G$ would sound like Gh, ex.: il mangea, he ate;
c) verbs the last syllable but one of which has a mute E (ex.: se promener, to walk) or an é (ex.: répéter, TO REPEAT) change E or É into È before terminations in E, ES, ENT, ex.: Je me promène, ils répètent;
however the verbs:

| appeler, | to call |
| :--- | :--- |
| chanceler, | to reel |
| épeler, | to spell |
| étinceler, | to sparkle |
| renouveler, | to renew |
| cacheter, | to seal |
| épousseter, | to dust |
| feuilleter, | to thread |
| jeter, | to throw |
| souffleter, | to cuff |

all ending in LER or TER, instead of changing $E$ or $\mathfrak{E}$ into $\grave{\mathrm{E}}$, double the L or T of their termination: ex.: tu appelles, you call; ils jettent, THEY THROW:
d) verbs in AYER, OYER, UYER, change y into I before a mute e, ex.: je paie, I PAY; il emploie, HE EMploys; ils m'ennuient, THEY BORE ME.
6. What are the irregular verbs in er?

1. Aller, to go, which borrows in its tenses three radicals:
a) Inf. Aller, allant, allé ind. pres.: nous allons, vous allez imp.: j’allais
simple past.: jallai subj. pres.: que j’aille subj. imp.: que j’allasse
b) VA,
indic. pres.: je vais, tu vas, il va, ils vont imperat. : va (vas-y)
c) IR,
fut.: j’irai
cond. : $j$ irais
2. Envoyer, TO SEND. The future $j$ 'enverrai is the only irreg. tense.

Second Conjugation (IR) 300 Verbs.

## 7. Conjugate a verb in ir. (1)

Infinitive:
Present.
Fin ir, to finish
Past.
Avoir fin $i$, to have finished

[^8]Participle:
Present.
Fin issant, finishing

> Past.

Fin i, finished
Compound Past.
Ayant fin $i$, having finished
Indicative:
Present.
Je fin is, I finish
Tu fin is
Il fin it
Nous fin issons
Vous fin issez
Ils fin issent
Imperfect.
Je fin issais, I finished, I was finishing Tu fin issais
Il fin issait
Nous fin issions
Vous fin issiez
Ils fin issaient
Simple Past.
Je fin is, I finished
Tu fin is
Il fin it
Nous fin îmes
Vous fin îtes
Ils fin irent

Compound Past.
J'ai fin $i$, I have finished
Tru. as fin $i$
Il a fin i
Nous avons fin $i$
Vous avez fin $i$
Ils ont fin $i$

Pluperfect.
J'avais fin $i$, I had finished Tu avais fin $i$
Il avait fin $i$
Nous avions fin ;
Vous aviez fin $i$
Ils avaient fin $i$

Past Anterior.
J'eus fin $i$, I had finished
Tu eus fin i
Il eut fin $i$
Nous êumes fin ${ }^{i}$
Vous eutes fin $i$
Ils eurent fin $i$

Future.
Je fin irai, I shall finish
Tu fin iras
Il fin ira
Nous fin irons
Vous fin irez
Ils fin iront

Future Anterior.
J'aurai fin $i$, I shall have finished
Tu auras fin $i$
Il aura fin $i$
Nous aurons fin $i$
Vous aurez fin $i$
Ils auront fin $i$

Conditional:
Present.
Je fin irais, I should finish
Tu fin irais
Il fin irait
Nous fin irions
Vous fin iriez
Ils fin iraient

Past.
J'aurais fin $i$, I should have finished Tu aurais fin $i$
Il aurait fin $i$
Nous aurions fin $i$
Vous auriez fin $i$
Ils auraient fin $i$

Imperative:
Que je finisse, let me finish Fin is, finish
Qu'il fin isse, let him finish
Fin issons, let us finish
Fin isses, finish
Qu'ils fin issent. let them finish

Subjunctive:

## Present.

Que je fin isse, that I may finish
Que tu fin isses
Qu'il fin isse
Que nous fin issions
Que vous fin issiez
Qu'ils fin issent

Imperfect.
Que je fin isse, that I might finish
Que tu fin isses
Qu'il fin ît
Que nous fin issions
Que vous fin issiez
Qu'ils fin issent

## Past.

Que $j$ aie fin $i$, that I may have finished
Que tu aies fin $i$
Qu'il ait fin $i$
Que nous ayons fin $i$
Que vous ayez fin $i$
Qu'ils aient fin $i$

Pluperfect.
Que j'eusse fin $i$, that I might have fin-
Que tu eusses fin $i$
[ished
Qu'il eût fin $i$
Que nous eussions fin i
Que vous eussiez fin i
Qu'ils eussent fin i

## 8. What is to be noticed in this conjugation?

a) The radical ( fin ) does not change;
b) the simple past ends in is ( $j e$ finis, I finished) and the past part. ends in I (fini, FINISHED);
c) the syllable iss, borrowed from the Latin verbs in ISCO, is inserted betwen the radical and the termination in 1. the indic. present (nous fin-iss-ons, We finisit), 2. the imperfect ( $j e$ fin-issais, I FInISHED), 3. the imperative (fin-iss-ons, let us finish), 4. the subj. present (que je fin-isse, that i may finish), and 5 . the present participle (fin-iss-ant, FINISHING).

Grammarians used to distinguish between the verbs in IR adding the syllable iss in this way, (about 300), and the verbs in ir not doing so, (about 20), ex.: dorm-ir, dorm ant, то sleep, sleeping, but it is more rational to treat the latter as irregular verbs.

## 9. What are the irregular verbs in ir?

Infinitive. Indic. pres.

| Assaillir, to assault | $j$ jassaillc |
| :--- | :--- |
| Tressaillir, to give a start | $j e$ tressaille |
| Couzrir, to cover | $j e$ couvre |
| Cueillir, to gather | $j e$ cueille |
| Offrir, to offer | $j$ 'offre |
| Ouvrir, to open | $j$ 'ouvre |
| Souffrir, to suffer | $j e$ souffre |

Simp. past.
j’assaillis
je tressaillis
je courris
je cueillis
j’offris
j'ouvris
je souffris

Compound past.
j’ai assailli
j’ai tressailli
j'ai couvert
j’ai cueilli
j’ai offert
j’ai ouvert
j'ai souffert
(The above verbs conjugate their indic. pres. on aimer). Moreover cucillir has je cueillerai (not cueillirai) in the future.

Infinit.
Bouillir, to boil.
Courir, to run je cours
Dormir, to sleep ..je dors
Fuir, to flee $\quad j$ fuis
nous fuyons
je mens
jc pars
je me repens
je sens
je sers
je sors
je vêts
Past Participle.
j’ai bouilli
j’ai couru
j’ai dormi
j’ai fui,

| je mentis | $j{ }^{2} a i$ ment" |
| :---: | :---: |
| je partis | je suis parti |
| je me repentis | je me suis repenti |
| je sentis | $j{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\text {a }}$ senti |
| je servis | $j{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\text {a }}$ servi |
| je sortis | je suis sorti |
| je vêtis | $j ’ a i ~ v e ̂ t u$ |

(The future of COURIR is $j e$ courrai; the future of the others is regular).

| Infinitive. | Indic. Pres. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Acquérir, to acquire | jacquiers <br> nous acquérons <br> je meurs <br> Mous mourons |
| Tenir, to hold | je tiens <br> nous tenons |
| Venir, to come | je viens <br> nous venons |

Simple Past.
j’acquis
је mourus
je tins
je vins

Future.
j’acquerrai
je mourrai
je tiendrai
je viendrai

Past Participle
j’ai acquis
je suis mort
j’ai tenu
je suis venu

Note.
Hair, to hate, in the present indicative is conjugated: je hais, tu hais, il hait. The imperat. sing. is also hais. Only these four forms lose the dieresis (") over $i$.
Bénir, to bless, is regular except in ecclesiastical phrases like eau bénite, holy water. buis bénit, blessed box.

Third Conjugation (OIR). 25 Verbs.

10. Conjugate a verb in oir. (1)

Infinitive:
Present.
Recev oir, to receive

Past.
Avoir reç $u$, to have received
Participle:
Present.
Recev ant, receiving
Past.
Reç u, received

Compound.
Ayant reç $u$, having received
Indicative:
Present.
Je reç ois, I receive Tu reç ois Il reç oit Nous recev ons Vous recev ez
Ils reç oivent
(1) These verbs are derived from Latin verbs in ERE or ERE.

## Imperfect.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Je recev ais, I received } \\
& \text { Tu recev ais } \\
& \text { Il recev ait } \\
& \text { Nous recev ions } \\
& \text { Vous recev iez } \\
& \text { Ils recev aient }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Simple Past.

Je reç us, I received
Tu reç us
Il reç ut
Nous reç ûmes
Vous reç ûtes
Ils reç urent

Compound Past.
J'ai reç $u$, I have received
Tu as reç $u$
Il a reç. u
Nous avons reç $u$
Vous avez reç $u$
Ils ont reç $u$

Pluperfect.
J'avais reç $u$, I had received
Tu avais reç $u$
Il avrait reçu
Nous avions reç $u$
Vous aviez reç $u$
Ils avaicht reç $u$

> Past Anterior.
> J'eus reç $u$, I had received Tu eus reç $u$ Il eut reç $u$ Nous ê̂mes reç $u$ Vous ê̂tes reç $u$ Ils eurent reç $u$

## Future.

Je recev rai, I shall receive Tu recev ras
Il recev ra
Nous recev rons
Vous recev rez
Ils recev ront

Future Anterior.
J'aurai reç $u$, I shall have received Tu auras reç $u$
Il aura reç $u$
Nous aurons reç $u$
Vous aurez reç $u$
Ils auront reç u

Conditional:
Present.
Je recev rais, I should receive
Tu recev rais
Il recev rait
Nous recev rions
Vous recev riez
Ils recev raient

Past.
J'aurais reç $u$, I should have received Tu aurais reç $u$ Il auraït reç $u$ Nous aurions reç $u$ Vous auriez reç u Ils auraient reç u
lmperative:
Que je reçoive, let me receive Reç ois, receive
Qu'il reç oive, let him receive Recev ons, let us receive Recev ez, receive Qu'ils reç oivent, let them receive

Subjunctive :
Present.
Que je reçoiv e, that I may receive Que tu reçoiv es
Qu'il reçoiv e
Que nous recev ions
Que vous recev iez
Qu'ils reçoiv ent

## Imperfect.

Que je reç usse, that I might receive Que tu reç usses
Qu'il reç ût
Que nous reç ussions
Que vous reç ussiez
Qu'ils reç ussent

## Past.

Que j’aie reç $u$, That I may have reQue tu aies res $u \quad$ [ceived Qu'il ait reç u $Q u e$ nous ayons reç $u$. Que vous ayez reş $u$ Qu'ils aient reç $u$

Pluperfect.
Que j'eusse reç $u$, that I might have Que tu eusses reç u [received Qu'il eût reç u Que nous eussions reç $u$ Que vous eussiez rȩ̧ u Qu'ils eussent reç u

## 11. What is to be noticed in this conjugation?

a) There are not more than twenty to twenty-five verbs in oir in frequent use;
b) most of them are irregular. Only percevoir, то perceive, apercevoir, to catch a glimpse of, décevoir, to deceive, concevoir, to CONCEIVE, are conjugated like recevoir, and as their radical is variable (recev in recev oir becoming reş in je regois) even these can hardly be called regular;
c) the simple past is in US, ex.: je reç $u s$, and the past part. in U, ex. : reç $u$; however voir, to SEE, and prévoir, to foresee (but not pourvoir, to provide) have their simple past in is, ex.: je vis, I SAW.
12. What are the irregular verbs in oir?

The following hardly change their radical:

Infinitive.
Déchoir, to fall off je déchois
nous déchoyons
il échoit
il faut
il pleut
je prévois
je sursois
je vaux
nous valons

Simple Past. Future. Past Part.
je déchus
il échut
il fallut
il plut
je prévis
je sursis
je valus
je décherrai
il écherra
il faudra
il pleurra
je prévoirai
je sursoirai
je vaudrai
j’ai déchu
il est échu
il a fallu
il a plu
j'ai prévu
j'ai sursis
j'ai valu

The following change their radical in a marked manner:
\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{cl}\text { Infinitive. } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Indic. Pres. } \\
\text { Asseoir, to seat } \\
\text { j'assieds }\end{array}
$$ <br>
nous asseyons <br>
or j'assois <br>

nous assoyons\end{array}\right\}\)| je dois |
| :--- |
| nous devons |
| Mouvoir, to move owe, must |
|  |
| je meus |
| nous mourons |



Simple Past.
je pus
je sus
Future.
je pourrai
je saurai
il siéra
je vis
je voulus
je verrai
j’ai vu
je voudrai

## Fourth Conjugation (re), 80 Verbs.

13. Conjugate a verb in re. (1)

Infinitive:

> Prestint.
> Rend re, to render
> Past.
> Avoir rend $u$, to have rendered

Participle:
Present.
Rend ant, rendering
Past.
Rend $u$, rendered
Compound.
Ayant rend u, having rendered

Indicative:
Present.
Je rend s, I render
Tu rend s
Il.rend
Nous rend ons
Vous rend ez
Ils rend ent
(1) These verbs are derived mostly from Latin verbs in Ere.

Imperfect.
Je rend ais, I rendered
Tu rend ais
Il rend ait
Nous rend ions
Vous rend iez
Ils rend aient

Simple Past.
Je rend is, I rendered
Tu rend is
Il rend it
Nous rend imes
Vous rend îtes
Ils rend irent.

Compound Past.
J'ai rend $u$, I have rendered
Tu as rend $u$
Il a rend u
Nous avons rend u
Vous avez rend $u$
Ils ont rend $u$

Pluperfect.
J'avais rend $u$, I had rendered
Tu avais rend $u$
Il avait rend $u$
Nous avicins rend u Vous aviez rend $u$
Ils avaient rend u

Past Anterior.
J'eus rend $u$, I had rendered Tu eus rend $u$
Il eut rend $u$
Nous eûmes rend $u$
Vous êtes rend $u$
Ils eurent rend $u$
Future.
Je rend rai, I shall render Tu rend ras
Il rend ra
Nous rend rons
Vous rend rez
Ils rend ront

Future Anterior.
J'aurai rend $u$, I shall have rendered Tu auras rend $u$
Il aura rend $u$
Nous aurons rend $u$
Vous aurez rend $u$
Ils auront rend u

Conditional:

## Present.

Je rend rais, I should render
Tu rend rais
Il rend rait
Nous rend rions
Vous rend riez
Ils rend raient

## Past.

J'aurais rend $u$, I should have rendered Tu aurais rend $u$
Il aurait rend $u$
Nous aurions rend $u$
Vous auriez rend $u$
Ils auraient rend u

Imperative:
Que je rende, let me render Rend s, render
Qu'il rend e, let him render Rend ons, let us render Rend $e z$, render
Qu'ils rend ent, lef them render
Subjunctive:
Present.
Que je rend e, that I may render
Que tu rend es
Qu'il rend e
Que nous rend ions
Que vous rend iez
Qu'ils rend ent
Imperfect.
Que je rend isse, that I might render
Que tu rend isses
Qu'il rend it
Que nous rend issions
Que vous rend issiez
Qu'ils rend issent

## Past.

Que j aie rend $u$, that I may have renQue tu aies rend $u$ [dered Qu'il ait rend $u$ Que nous ayons rend $u$ Que vous ayez rend $u$ Qu'ils aient rend $u$

Pluperfect.
Que jeusse rend $u$, that I might have Que tu eusses rend $u$ [rendered Qu'il ê̂t rend u Que nous eussions rend $u$ Que vous eussiez rend $u$ Qu'ils eussent rend u

## 14. What is to be noticed in this conjugation?

a) It numbers about 80 verbs;
b) these 80 verbs can be classified as follows:

1. Verbs in endre, (descendre, to Go down, fendre, to Split, défendre, to FORbID, pendre, to HANG, tendre, TO STRETCH; vendre, TO SELL).
Verbs in ondre (fondre, to melt, pondre, to LAY EGGS, répondre, to ANSWER, tondre, Ti SHEAR) ; also rompre, to break.
Verbs in rdre (perdre, to lose, mordre, to bite, tordre, to wring) are conjugated like RENDRE.
2. Verbs in aindre (craindre, to fear, plaindre. TO PITY, contraindre, TO FORCE).
Verbs in eindre (ceindre, to gird, feindre, to FEIGN, enfreindre, TO BREAK A RULE, geindre,

TO GROAN, peindre, TO PAINT, empreindre, TO IMPRINT, teindre, TO DYE, atteindre, TO REACH, éteindre, TO EXTINGUISH, astreindre, TO COMPEL, étreindre, TO HUG, restreindre, TO RESTRICT), and verbs in oindre (oindre, to anoint, join$d r e$, to JOIN, poindre, to break out (sun), have all added the D for euphony (crainre instead of craindre is harsh) and their real radical is AIN, EIN, OIN; hence their present indic. je crains, je peins, j’oins. and their imperat. are without a D ;
in all the other tenses, except the future (crain.. drai) and conditional (craindrais) they change AIN, EIN, OIN, into AIGN, EIGN, OIGN (je craignis, je peignis, j’oignis);
3. Verbs in aître (connaître, то know, paître, TO BROWSE, paraître, TO APPEAR,) or in OÎTRE croître, TO INCREASE, décroître, TO DECREASE) have added the T for euphony and this T disappears in the pres. indic. ( $j e$ connais), the imperfect ( $j e$ connaissais) and the tenses derived from them;
the simple past. is in US, ( $j e$ connus) and the past part. in U, (connu).
4. Verbs in UIRE (nuire, to Hurt, luire, то SHINE, construire, TO BUILD, détruire, TO DESTROY, instruire, to instruct, conduire, to lead, enduire, TO COAT, induire, 'TO INDUCE, introduire, TO INTRODUCE, réduire, TO REDUCE) have their radical in UIS, ( $j e$ nuis, je nuisais, je nuisis), but their future is in UIRAI ( $j e$ nuirai), and their conditional in UIRAIS (je muirais), the past part. is in UI, ( ${ }^{\prime} a i n u i$ ).
5. Irregular verbs as below:

## 15. What are the irregular verbs in re?

Infinitive. Indic. Pres. Simple Past.

Absoudre, to absolve
j’absous
nous absolvons
Dissoudre, to dissolve je dissous nous dissolvons
Résoudrc, to resolve
Coudre, to sew
Moudre, to grind
Battre, to beat
Mettre, to put
Boire, to drink

Conclure, to conclude E.xclure, to exclude Confire, to preserve
je résouds nous résolvons
je couds
nous cousons
je mouds nous moulons
je bats nous battons je mets nous mettons je bois nous buvons ils boivent je conclus j'exclus je confis

## (Participle Pres.: confisant)

Maudire, to curse je mandis je maudis nous maudissons
je crois nous croyons je dis nous disons
none
none
je résolus
je cousis
je moulus
je battis
je mis
je bus
(Part. Present : buvant)
je conclus
je confis
je crus
je dis

Dire, to say

- Ecrire, to write

6 Faire, to do
j'écris
nous écrivons
je fais
nous faisons
vous faites
ils font
(Subj. Pres.: que je fasse)

Infinitive.
Absoudre, to absolve j'absoudrai Dissoudre, to dissolve je dissoudrai Résoudre, to resolve je résoudrai Coudre, to sew. Moudre, to grind Battre, to beat Mettre, to put Boire, to drink Conclure, to conclude Confire, to preserve Exclure, to exclude Maudire, to curse Croire, to believe Dire, to say Ecrire, to write Faire, to do

Infinitive.
Lire, to read

Plaire, to please
Prendre, to take

Future.
je coudrai
je moudrai
je battrai
je mettrai
je boirai
je conclurai
je confirai
j'exclurai
je maudirai
je croirai
je dirai
j'écrirai
je ferai
Indic. Pres.
je lis
nous lisons
je plais
nous plaisons
je prends
nous prenons

Past. Part.
j’ai absous
j’ai dissous
j’ai résolu
j’ai cousu
j'ai moulu
j’ai batiu
j’aj mis
jai bu
j’ai conclu
$j$ jai confit
$j$ jai exclu
j'ai maudit
j’ai cru
jai dit
j’ai écrit
j'ai fait
Simple Past.
je lus.
je plus
je pris

| Rire, to laugh | je ris | je ris |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Suffire, to suffice | je suffis | je suffis |
| Wuivre, to follow | nous suffisons je suis | je suivis |
|  | nous suivons |  |
| Se taire, to be silent | je me tais | je me tus |
| Vaincre, to conquer | je vaincs | je vainquis |
|  | il vaine |  |
|  | nous-vainquons |  |
| Vivre, to live | je vis | je vécus |
| Braire, to bray | il brait |  |
|  | ils braient |  |
| Clore, to close | je clos |  |
|  | tu clos |  |
|  | il clôt |  |
| Eclore, to hatch | j'éclos |  |
|  | tu éclos |  |
|  | il éclôt |  |
|  | ils éclosent |  |
| Frire, to fry | je fris |  |
|  | tu fris |  |
|  | il frit. |  |
| Traire, to milk | je trais |  |
|  | nous trayons |  |


| Infinitive. | Future. | Past Part. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Lire, to read | je lirai | jai lu |
| Plaire, to please | je plairai | j'ai plu |
| Prendre, to take | je prendrai | jai pris |
| Rire, to laugh | je rirai | j'ai ri |
| Suffire, to suffice | je suffirai | j'ai suffi |
| Suivre, to follow | je suivrai | j'ai suivi |
| Se taire, to be silent | je me tairai | je me suis tu |

Vaincre, to conquer je vaincrai jai vaincu
Vivre, to live je vivrai
j’ai vécu
Braire, to bray
il braira
ils brairont
Clore, to close je clorai jai clos
Eclore, to hatch j'éclorai j'ai éclos
Frire, to fry je frirai
jai frit
Traire, to milk
je trairai
j’ai trait

## C. THE USE OF TENSES

## INFINITIVE

1. Is not the infinitive frequently used in French instead of the present participle in English?
a) The infinitive is constantly used in French, as the present participle is constantly used in English, as a subject or an object, ex.: DYing For one's country is the noblest lot, mourir pour sa patrie čest le sort le plus beau; I dislike punishing a little boy, je déteste punir un petit garçon;
b) the infinitive is used instead of the present participle (1) after prepositions (avant de, après, au lieu de, de, sans), ex.: think before speaking, réfléchissez avant de parler:
however, the present participle is used after en (meaning in, while, by, or on), ex.: ne lisez pas en mangeant, do not read while eating; cul arrivant, on ARriving.
(1) In this connection called gerund by grammarians.

## Note.

The French language is often compelled to use circumlocutions to translate English participles like those in the following sentences: he came without anybody asking him, il vint sans que personne l'invitât; Your forgetting my recommendation CAUSED ALL THE MISChief, en oubliant ma recommandation vous avez causé tout le mal.
2. Are there any other cases in which the French language substitutes the infinitive for different tenses in English?

Yes:
a) in very brief interrogative sentences, ex.: que faire? qui appeler? où courir? WHAT SHALL I Do? Whom can i call? where can i run?
b) in sentences imitating the historical infinitive in Latin, ex.: Et lui de rire! (tunc eum ridere) Whereupon he laughed;
c) as an imperative, ex.: Agiter avant de s'en servir: Shake before using; venir de bonne heure, please come early.

## Note.

The exclamative infinitive. (ex..: go there! never!) is frequent in French, ex.: Allcr là! jamais!

## PARTICIPLE

## 1. What is the concord of the present participle?

A word ending in ANT may be either a real present participle or a verbal adjective, i.e. an adjective derived from a verb, as an English word ending in ing may be either a present participle (ex.: my speecit visibly convincing him....) or an ad-
jective (ex.: my convincing speech persuaded him).
In the first case (participle) there is no agreement, ex.: on woit ces montagnes dominant tout l'Hudson, YOU SEE THOSE MOUNTAINS DOMINATING THE whole Hudson;
in the second case (verbal adjective) the word is regarded as an adjective and agrees with the noun, ex.: montrez-moi les points dominants, show me the highest points.

## 2. What is the agreement of the past participle?

a) When the past participle is accompanied by ETRE it agrees with the subject; ex.: les Présidents sont élus en novembre, Presidents are elected in November; la petite s'est réveillée, the baby (girl) has awakened;
b) when the past participle is accompanied by Avoriz it agrees with the object when the object comes before, not so if it comes after; ex.: j’ai fait bien des bévucs, I made many blunders; les bévues que j'ai faites, the rlunders I made;
c) the past participle of intransitive verbs never agrees, ex.: THis HOUSE ONCE BELONGED TO MY MOTHER, cette maison a appartenu à ma mère.

## Note.

1. When the past participle is followed by an infinitive, ex.: les actrices que j'ai vu (or vues) jouer, тне actresses whom i saw act, modern usage is strongly in favor of the participle remaining unchanged.
2. The past participles pu, nû, voulu, never change; ex.: il a fait tous les voyaǵes qu'il a voulu (understood: faire) ; he took all the journeys he wished.

## PRESENT INDICATIVE

1. Is not the present sometimes used in French instead of the past, as in English?
Yes, in four cases:
2. in a very vivid narration; ex.: Lafayette comprend, il quitte l'Amérique, vole en France, et revient avei de l'or, Lafayette realized the situation, left America, flew over to France, and came back WITH MONEY;
3. in the very frequent phrase; $j e$ viens de, I have JUST; ex.: il vient de sortir, HE HAS JUST GONE OUT;
4. in the phrases c'est moi, c'est lui, etc., beginning a sentence referring to the past; ex.: c'est moi qui vous ai écrit, It was I Who wrote to you;
5. in sentences like: I have been here an hour, $j e$ suis $i c i$ depuis une heure or il $y$ a une heure que je suis ici.
6. Is not the present frequently used in French instead of the future?

Yes, colloquially, as in English; ex.: I sail on the fifth, je m'embarque le cinq.

IMPERFECT
Does the English language possess a form corresponding to the French imperfect?
The word imperfect means incomplete, and in the language of grammarians denotes an action which is not, or was not, entirely past at the time referred to.

We possess this tense in English. For instance, the word smoked is certainly an imperfect-not a past-in a sentence like the following: HE USED to be silent when he smoked, il se taisait généralement quand il fumait.
But we must notice that the very same word, SMOKED, is much more frequently used to denote an action completely past, for example, in the two following sentences: HE SMOKED FOUR CIGARS LAST night; he smoked himself ill, which the French language would translate, using not the imperfect but the past: il a fumé quatre cigares hier soir; il a fumé jusqu'à se rendre malade. The conclusion should be that the shade of meaning denoted by the imperfect is more frequent in French than in English.
In reality the French imperfect is generally rendered in English by the progressive; ex.: HE WAS SMOKING (When His FATHER WENT in), il fumait (quand son père entra), or by the words USED TO; ex.: He USEd to smoke more than he does now, il fumait plus qu'à présent.

## Note.

In sentences like il fumait quand son père entrawhich can be translated in English by the progres;ive he was smoking-the French language frequently uses être en train de, ex.: il était en train de fumer quand son père entra.

## SIMPLE PAST AND COMPOUND PAST

## 1. When does the French language use the simple past?

Except in the South and in a few regions in the West of France, the.simple past (j'écrivis, je partis) is no longer used colloquially and seldom
appears even in a private letter: it is confined to books or speeches in formal style. The French replace it by the compound past ( $j$ 'ai écrit, je suis parti) which is a considerable loss to the language; ex.: I WROTE TO HIM LAST WEEK, je lui ai écrit la semaine dernière. [But in formal style the sentence, SHE WROTE TO ME BESEECI-ingly, should run : elle m'écrivit d'un ton suppliant.]

## Note.

The tendency of many English-speaking people accustomed to one word (I Wrote) instead of two ( $j$ 'ai écrit) to denote the past is to use the imperfect when speaking French insteal of the compound past. Frequently one hears them say: je lui écrivais plusieurs fois, i wrote to him several times, instead of je lui ai écrit. We should remember that we are on no account to use the imperfect, unless we can mentally retranslate in the progressive, for instance, in such a sentence as je lui écrivais quand il entra, (i was writing to him when he came in).

## PLUPERFECT

## Does French use the pluperfect more frequently than English?

Yes. French uses the pluperfect:

1. in every case in which English does; ex.: I had tried many times when at last i succeeded, j’avais essayé bien des fois quand enfin je réussis.
2. in many cases in which we use the simple past; ex.: on many occasions in which i tried to vault over the fence i failed, en de nombreuses circonstances ò̀ j’avais essayé de sauter la palissade j’avais échoué.

## Note.

Pluperfect means "more than complete" and is so called because it denotes a past action which came before another, also past: it takes our memory farther back than the mere past, for instance, in a sentence like: i failed or i tried to, which conjures up only one past occurrence.

## FUTURE

1. Does French use the present instead of the future after when, as soon as, the moment, whenever, the first who, etc.?

No, the meaning here implied is future and the verb is in the future in French; ex.: call me up THE MOMENT THE DOCTOR ARRIVES, téléphonez-moi sitôt que le médecin arrivera;
we use the imperfect instead, of the conditional in similar sentences referring to the past, but here again the French language uses the conditional, ex.: you were to call me up the moment the DOCTOR ARRIVED, vous devies me téléphoner sitôt que le médecin arriverait.

## 2. How does the French language translate $I$ am going to or I will with an infinitive?

By je vais, which has become a sort of auxiliary of the future, ex.: I am going to buy a bicycle, je vais acheter une bicyclette, I will go to his rоом, je vais aller à sa chambre.

## Note.

1. Partly on account of will meaning vouloir, partly because je vais and Je veux sound somewhat alike, it is not rare to hear English-speaking people make the mistake: je veux aller à sa chambre instead of je vais.

However, notice that the interrogation "will you go
to his room?" is translated: voulez-vous aller à sa chambre?
2. Devoir is also used to denote the future; ex.: nous devons déménager, we are to move out.

## FUTURE ANTERIOR

1. What is the meaning of the term "future anterior"?

English grammarians generally call this tense future perfect (i.e. future past) which no doubt is a puzzling expression. The French is clearer. Anterior means previous. So the future anterior announces an action which will have already taken place when another action happens; ex.: BY THE time you get there he will have found an INTERPRETER, quand vous arriverez il aura trouvé un interprète.

## Note.

The French tense is exactly similar to the English tense:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { il aura } & + \text { trouvé. } \\
\text { HE WILL HAVE. } & + \text { FOUND. }
\end{array}
$$

## 2. Is not the future anterior more frequent in French than in English?

Yes, it is constantly met with in sentences in which the English language uses must, probably, I AM AFRAID, there is no doubt, with the past. For instance, people whom you were expecting do not turn up and you cast about for the causes of their delay: "It must have Rained" or "THEY had a breakdown, no doubt" or "I'm AFraid the baby is ill." In French all these sentences would include a future anterior: "il aura plu"; "ils auront eu une panne, sans doute"; le bébé aura été malade, je le crains."

1. Cannot the conditional be replaced by another tense?

Yes, the past conditional is frequently replaced by the subjunctive pluperfect; ex.: it would have been easy, il eût été facile.
This substitution is largely a matter of euphony and the conditional can always be used.
2. Is there not a case in which the conditional in French can never be translated by the same tense in English?

Yes, French newspapers frequently use the conditional to announce an event which is supposed to be probable; ex.: le président démissionnerait, le Sénat se réunirait le 18; President expected to resign, Senate probibly to meet on the 18 th .
3. What is the French translation of "if you should come"?

The same as that of "if you came" or "in casi: you CAME", viz., si vous veniez.

## Note.

If I should have moved (or had i moved) I should HAVE BEEN A DEAD MAN is frequently translated by: si je bougeais, j'étais un homme mort, both conditionals being translated by the imperfect.. This usage recalls the narrative present (see page 120 ).
4. Is not the conditional used to express sudden feelings?

Yes, in exclamative sentences like: "que j’aimerais voir Paris!" How i wish i could see Paris! je voudrais déjà y être! I wish i were there alReady! que je détesterais de n'y pouvoir aller! How i should hate not being able to go there!

## SUBJUNCTIVE

Introductory Note.-The subjunctive is in constant use in French, as in Latin. It is a highly refined form of speech, subtle and yet accurate, to which the French language owes a great deal of its elegance. Americans, using the subjunctive in English more frequently than the British, find little difficulty in mastering its use in French.

## 1. What is the meaning of the word subjunctive?

The word Subjunctive (Latin subjungere, to join beneath) means "appended to" either a condition or a clause. In fact we use it in English, exactly as the French do, whenever there is a restrictive sense implied in the meaning or in the construction of our sentence; ex.: UNLESS A NEW prophet arise (condition). I suggest that he go to Washington (subordinate clause). The Subjunctive is sometimes called the subjective mode. Seldom is a play on words so illumitating, for it is a fact that the subjunctive frequently denotes a subjective state of mind, that is to say, the mental attitude we have when we consider ourselves (our ideas, wishes, conjectures)
rather than things exterior to us. When we point out a fact we naturally use the indicative (Latin indicare, to point at) ; ex.: I kNow he is dead; when we are not so sure, we use the more subjective form of speech; ex.: if, AS I Am AFRAID he were DEAD.

## 2. What are the cases in which there is no doubt that the subjunctive must be used in Frc ach?

a) In every case in which the subjunctive is found in either classical or modern English, remembering that the subjunctive in English is denoted not only by the subjunctive proper (though I be, though I were) but also by the forms that I may and though he should; ex.:

1. (Subjunctive proper): UNLESS your Son RePENT, à moins que votre fils ne se repente; Whether that man consent or not, que cet homme consente ou non; though he be sole heir, bien qu'il soit seul héritier;
1 would suggest that he write: $j e$ consaillerais qu'il écrive;
I therefore propose that Congress recugnize..... Donc, je propose que le Congrès reconnaisse....
2. (May) : I say this that you may fully re-alize, je dis cela pour que vous compreniez parfaitement;
May his name be blessed! que son nom soit béni!
3. (Should): I am sorry she should think; je suis fâché qu'elle croie;

What a pity that he should have given up music! quel dommage qu'il ait abandónné la musique!
b) When the final clause of a sentence includes a verb in the infinitive (1) ; ex.:
his father wants him to be a doctor, soin père veut qu'il soit médecin;
It is too late for him to Learn music, il est trop tard pour qu'il apprenne la musique..
3. In what cases does French use the subjunctive though the verb is in the indicative (present, past or future) in English?

We may say that French uses the subjunctive instead of our indicative wherever, as we said above,
a) the person who speaks expresses his own state of mind (joy or the reverse, will, etc.) ; ex.:

I am glad that you are coming too, je suis heureux que vous veniez aussi;
He is surprised at your refusing, il s'étonne que vous refusiez;
I WAS FURIOUS AT YOUR NOT HEARING MF, j'źtais furieux de ce que vous ne mientendiez pas;
b) and especially when a certain amount of uncertainty is felt in the sentence. This happens chiefly with verbs indicating:

1. a doubt; ex.: I noubt that she wíll ever ReCover, je doute qu'elle guérisse jamais;
2. a possibility; ex.: She may get well, il est possible qu'elle guérisse;
[^9]
## Note.

It is probable that she will get well is translated by: il est probable qu'elle guérira, because probability shows us the fact as if it actually existed.
3. an hypothesis; ex.: Let us suppose that an ACCIDENT occurs, supposons qu'un accident se produise;
4. a negation; ex.: I do not see that he is so VERY bRAVE, je ne vois pas qu'il soit si brave, I SAW NOTHing that impressed me very much, je n'ai rien vu qui m'ait beaucoup frappé;
5. an interrogation; ex.: Is it true that war sometimes is a benefit? est-il vrai que parfois la guerre soit un bien?
6. a concession; ex.: Though he was a king, bien qu'il fût roi; Whether he comes or not, qu'il vienne ou non.
4. Is there not a French verb after which the subjunctive is always used?

Yes, falloir, to be necessary, when followed by QUE; ex. : it is NECESSARY FOR ME to Leave, il faut que $j e$ parte; I had to Leave, il fallut que je partisse; I Shall have to leave, il faudra que je parte.

## 5. Are there not many adverbial phrases after which the subjunctive is always used?

Yes, the subjunctive is always used in adverbial sentences denoting:

1. finality or purpose (afin que or short que, in ORDER THAT, pour que, THAT, de manic̀re que, in SUCH A WAY or SO THAT; ex.:

SIEAK SOFTLY SO THAT BABY MAY GO TO SLEEP, parlez bas pour que bébé s'endorme;
EXPRESS YOURSELF IN SUCH A WAY THAT EVERYBODY WILL BE SURE TO UNDERSTAND, exprimez vous de manière que tout le monde soit sûr de comprendre;
2. negation or restriction (non pas que, not that, sans que, without, followed by a participle, à moins que, unless, loin que, far from, followed by a participle, de peur que, Lest) ; ex.: NOT THAT I AM AFRAID OF HIM, non pas que je le craigne;
he crept out without anybody hearing iilm, il se glissa dehors sans que personne l'entendît;
3. previousness (avant que, BEFORE, jusqu'à ce que, UNTIL, en attendant que, WHILE, followed by ạ present participle), ex.:
DO NOT MOVE BEFORE THE LIGHT APPEARS, ne bougez pas avant que la lumière paraisse, WAIT HERE TILL SHE COMES BACK, attendez ici jusqu'à ce qu'elle revienne, or attendez qu'elle revienne.

## Note.

The subjunctive is always used after a clause containing a superlative because the meaning of the sentence is restrictive; ex.: the most cruel bore that ever tortured me, le raseur le plus cruel qui m'ait jamais torturć.

## 9. What tense is used after si, if?

It seems as if it ought to be the subjunctive, as the sentence inevitably denotes a condition, but in reality it is the indicative, because the condition is ima-
gined as already realized. However, the effect of the condition implied in the sentence appears in the subordinate clause, which is in the subjunctive, ex. $\vdots$ If a man should appear and mock you...., si quelqu'un paraissait (indic.) qui se moquât (subj.) de vous.

## Note.

The elaborate form si jeusse voulu, had i consented, s'il fût vcnu, had he turned up, can always be replaced by the indicative pluperfect si javais voulu, s’il était venu.

## 7. What is the concord of tenses in the subjunctive?

a) When the verb in the principal clause (generally the first half of the sentence) is in the present the verb in the subordinate clause should be in the subjunctive present; ex.: je doute qu'il puisse vous payer, I doubt if he can pay yoú;
b) when the verb in the principal clause is in the past or the conditional the verb in the subordinate clause is in the subjunctive imperfect, if the person who speaks refers to something having happened simultaneously; ex.: I did not think he was lyING TO ME, je ne croyais pas qu'il me mentît; it is in the subjunctive pluperfect if mention is made of an action previous to the time alluded to; ex.: I did not suspect he had told a lie, je ne soupçonnais pas qu’il eût menti.

## Note.

The subjunctive imperfect is gradually being replaced by the present on account of the comical sound of forms like de peur que nous nous moquassions, avant que vous n'oubliassicz, etc. However, it is retained in the third pers. sing. (de peur qu'il ne se moquát, avant qu'il n'oubliât), which is perfectly euphonious.
8. What method should we follow to master the rules given above?
We know a rule thoroughly when we begin to apply it instinctively. Only practise will develop an instinct. The best kind of practise should be the invention of sentences exemplifying the rules. Begin where you will find it easiest, that is to say with sentences in which the English language a; well as the French makes use of the subjunctive; ex.: Though he be a King, that i may sucCeed, lest he should forget, etc.; then go on to adverbial sentences automatically bringing in the subjunctive; ex.: avant qu'il me parte, jusqu'à ce que je vienne, etc. You will soon find that the subjunctive will, in such sentences, seem quite natural to you, and a habit being thus created, you will be ready to go on to cases (like those described in question 3) requiring a little more attention.

## INTERROGATION—NEGATION

## INTERROGATION

## 1. What difference is there between the mode of interrogation in English and in French?

The French language has nothing comparable to the verb то Do as an auxiliary in interrogative sentences. So whenever we interrogate in French we must dismiss do from our mind (unless of course the verb is faire), and think of simpler forms like may I? Can you? have they? need I? French interrogations always limit themselves, like the foregoing, to simply placing the pronoun after the verb; ex.: May I? puis-je? Does he come? vient-il? Did she write? écrivait-elle?

## 2. Conjugate a verb interrogatively in the present indicative and the past?

Chanter, to sing.

Present
Chanté-je? Do I sing?
chantes-tu? Dost thou sing?
chante-t-il? Does he sing?
chantons-nous? Do we sing?
chantez-vous? Doyou sing?
chantent-ils? Do they sing?

Simple Past
Chantai-je? Did I sing? chantas-tu? Didst thou sing?
chanta-t-il? Did he sing? chantâmes-nous? Did we sing?
chantâtes-vous? Did you sing?
chantèrent-ils? Did they sing?

## Note.

1. Chanté-je? is not the mere inversion of je chante: an acute accent on te gives clarity to the sound.
2. In chante-t-il? and chanta-t-il? $t$ is inserted for euphony.
3. Chantent-ils? is pronounced like chante-t-il?

## 3. Is Chanté-je? in frequent use in modern French?

No, it is practically an archaism.
The only verbs conjugated in the first person indicative in that way are: ai-je? (qu'ai-je fait?) -dis-je? (que dis-je?) - dois-je? (dois-je le dire?)

- puis-je? (où puis-je aller?) - suis-je? (qui suis-je pour oser...?) - vois-je? (que vois-je?).

Note.
Puissé-je! is a subjunctive and means may I!

## 4. What is the form used in modern French?

Est-ce que? is in constant use in the first person indicative and tends to appear in most interrogations;
Ex.: Do I sing? est-ce que je chante? Does sile Sing? est-ce qu'elle chante? Will she sing? estce qu'elle chantera?

## Note.

The best French usage is however in favor of chanle-t-elle? and chantera-t-elle? Est-ce-que? apart from the first person indicat., ought only to be used when the meaning is: is it because? Ex.: you do not Sing. Is it because you are ill? Vous ne chantez pas. Est-ce que vous êtes malade?
5. How does the interrogation run when the subject is not a pronoun, but a noun or an infinitive?
a) In colloquial French the noun is placed before the verb, and the sentence then sounds like similar interrogative sentences in English, which were it not for the tone used in speaking or the note of interrogation in print, would not be interrogations at all; ex.: Your brother is coming? (isn'r he?) Votre frère vient? Your sisters will sing? Vos seurs chanteront?
b) In slightly less familiar sentences and always in sustained style the pronoun corresponding to the subject (il, ils, elle, elles) is added; ex.: İs your brother coming? Votre frère vientit? Will your sister sing? Vos scuurs chante-ront-elles? Is NOT DYING SOMETIMES SWEET? Mourir n'est-il pas dour parfois?

## NEGATION

## 1. What difference is there between negative sentences in English and in French?

English uses the auxiliary TO DO in negative sentences (I do not write, You did not read) ; French does not. Negative sentences in French resemble very nearly those negative sentences in English from which do is absent; ex.: I have not, je n'ai pas; I DARE NOT, je n'ose pas; I KNOW Not, je ne sais pas.
The only difference is that instead of one negation. not, French uses two, ne....pas, between whic̣! the verb is inserted.

## Note.

1. Je n'ose and je ne sais are used in formal speecil for je n'ose pas, je ne sais pas.
2. The suppression of pAS after SI is frequent; ex.: Si je ne craignais de vous fatiguer, IF I Were not afraid of tiring you.
3. The infinitive is placed after ne pas; ex.: être ou ne pas être, to be or not to be.

## 2. What is the French for "You do nothing"?

"You do nothing" is translated by "vous ne failes rien" (and not by "vous faites ricn") : that is to say the French sentence would correspond exactly to the illiterate "you do not do nothing, if pas were not eliminated.
Every negative sentence including the words ne... jamais, never, ne...plus, no more, no longer, ni...ni, NEITHER...NOR, nulle part, NOWHERE, pas de, aucun, no, personne, NOBODY, and rien,
nothing, is translated in the same manner, leaving pas out; ex.: I know nobody here, je ne connais personne ici.

## Note.

Personne, norony, and rien, nothing, used as subjects, are followed by ne; ex.: Personne n'est venu, nobody came; Rien ne vous plaît, nothing pleases you.
3. What difference is there between ne pas and pas de?

Ne pas is an adverb meaning not, while pas de is an adjective meaning no;
ex. :
Je n'ai pas mon argent, I have not my money. Je n'ai pas d'argent, I have no money.

## Résumé

## What rules are exemplified in the following sentences?

J'aime nager,
Avant de plonger,
En plongeant,
Que penser?
Et le renard de courir;
Fírmer la porte,
Des livres amusants,
Ces livres amusant mon fils....,

I love swimming.
Before diving.
While diving.
What could I think?
Whereupon master fox ran away.
Please close the door.
Amusing books.
As these books amuse my son....

Est-il venu?
Non, mais sa soeur est venue,
J'ai fait de grandes promenades,
Les grandes promenades qu'il a faites,
Sa figure m'a semblé intelligente,
Les ballons que $j$ 'ai vu gonfler,
Les ballons que j’ai vus s'élever,

Je glisse, je tombe, je me blesse,
Je viens de le gronder, C'est votre frère qui tenait l'éponge,
On part en vacances demain,

Je le regardais tandis qu'il grimpait,
Comme il grimpait !a branche cassa,

Je vous ai gâté,
Un prophête s'éleva,
J'avais cru vous entendre,

Rentrez sitôt que le clairon sonnera,

Did he come?

No, but his sister did.

I took long walks.
The long walks he took.
His face seemed intelligent to me.
The balloons I saw inflated.

The balloons I saw rising.

I slipped, fell, and hurt myself.
I have just scolded him.
It was your brother who held the sponge.
The school breaks up tomorrow.

I watched him as he climbed.
As he was climbing the branch snapped.

I spoiled you.
A prophet arose.
I thought I heard you.

Come home the moment the bugle blows.

Il m'a promis de rentrer quand le clairon sonnerait.

Je vais $y$ penser,
Ne devez-vous pas acheter un terrain?

On ne les voit pas: ils se seront perdus,

Il eut mieux valu rester, $\{$ I1 aurait " " " \{
La Bourse fermerait le samedi,
Si vous étiez venu, vous gagniez mille dollars,

Bien que la loi soit muette,
Je suis d'avis que vous alliez,
Redites cela afin que $j e$ puisse me rappeler,
Vive la France!
Que ses destinées soient paisibles!
il est bon que vous sachiez,
Je voulais que vous sachiez, [1 est utile que vous appreniez à souffrir,

He promised to come home as soon as the bugle blew.

I am going to think of it.

Are you not to buy a lot?
They do not appear; they must have lost their way.

It would have been wiser to stay.
Stock market henceforth to close Saturdays.
Had you come you would have made a thousand dollars.

Though the Act say nothing.

I suggest that you go.
Say it again that I may remember.
Long live France!
May her future be peaceful!
It is good you should know.
I wanted you to know.
It is useful for you to learn how to bear suffering.

Il s'impatiente de ce que vous différiez,
Il est douteux que vous passiez bien votre examen,
Est-il possible qu'elle épouse cet homme?
En admettant que vous ayez raison,

Je ne suppose pas qu'il soit millionnaire,
Je n'ai jamais vu de boxeur que j’aie trouvé bel homme,

Espère-t-il que je revienne cent fois?

Faudra-t-il que je lui écriz'e vingt fois?

Parlez pour qu'on vous entende,
Il entra sans que personne le remarquât,
Avant que le soleil fût levé,
L'homme le plus brave que jaic connu,
S'il entrait un homme qui portôt des armes,
Je ne crois pas qu'il vienne,

He is growing impatient at your putting off
It is doubtful that you will pass your examination.
Is it possible that she may marry that man?
Granted that you are right.

I do not suppose that he is a millionaire.
I never saw a pugilist I really thought handsome.

Does he expect me to come back a hundred times?
Shall I have to write to him twenty tmes?

Speak so that you may be heard.
He went in without anybody noticing him.
Before the sun rose.
The bravest man I ever knew.
If a man should come in carrying arms.
I do not think he is coming.

Je ne croyais pas qu'il vînt,

I did not think he was
coming.

Je n'aurais pas cru qu'il fût ventu,

Où courcnt-elles?

Se moque-t-il de moi?
Est-ce qu'il se moque de moi?
La partie commence?
La partie commence-t-elle?

Elles ne courent pas,
Si je n'espérais vous plaire,
Ňe pas oser c'est ne pas réussir,
Je n'entendis rien,
Pas d'effort, pas de succès,

I could not have supposed he would come.

Where are they running to?
Is he making fun of me?

Is he making fun of me? The game is beginning? Is the game beginning?

They do not run.
If I did not hope to please you.
Not to dare is not to succeed.
I heard nothing.
No effort, no success.

## D. CLASSES OF VERBS

## Passive

Intransitive
Reflexive
Reciprocal
Impersonal

## PASSIVE VERBS

## How are French passive verbs conjugated?

Exactly as in English, with the auxiliary то BE; ex.: It is WRItten that... il est écrit que... However, verbs which in English are accompanied by a preposition (то BE SPOKEN TO, TO BE REPROACHED WITH, etc.) can not be translated liteially; the verb has to become transitive with on as a subject; ex.: I Am SPOKEN TO, on me parle; the errors you were reproached with, les fautes qu'on vous reprocha.

## INTRANSITIVE VERBS

1. What is the auxiliary used in the past tenses of intransitive verbs in French?

Till the seventeenth century it used to be avoir, to have, as in English, (and even now country people frequently say $j$ 'ai venu, I have come, $j$ 'ai monté, I have walked upstairs) but it is at present être, TO BE; ex.: THEY HAD WALKED UPSTAIRS, ils étaient montés, before they went downstairs, avant qu'ils ne fussent descendus.

## Note.

The following verbs: Cesser, to cease; coucher, то SLEEP; demeurer, to dWell; échouer, to fail; grandir, TO GROW UP; paraître, TO APPEAR; and vieillir, to grow old, take avoir.
2. Is the intransitive verb used as frequently and conveniently in French as in English?

French people who know English can not admire enough the flexibility of our-intransitive verbs. An
intransitive verb in English can be accompanied by various prepositions which complete its meaning to perfection and vividly describe the action in its chronological order. For instance, when we read the words, He JUMPED, we see a man jump, and turning over the page we see by the words in or out whether the jump brought him into a place or out of it. The effect is that of a motion picture. The French language is compelled, in order to translate such a short sentence, to use very indefinite verbs like il entra, He went in, or il sortit, HE WENT out, completed by the words d'un saut, witir a Leap; the logical order is spoiled and the picturesque effect is missed because the words il entra, il sortit are infinitely less descriptive than HE JUMPED.
The English language also admits of reflexive pronouns or nouns being used as objects after an intransitive verb, which produces wonderful effects of the same kind: French is too analytical (that is to say, decomposes the elements of a sentence tou much) to cope with such condensation.
For instance, sentences like:
IE READ HIMSELF BLIND, or DON'T YAWN YOUR HEAD OFF, which in English seem so natural that even children imitate them at once, are translated lengthily and somewhat clumsily by : il perdit la vue à lire; he lost his eye-sight by reading, Ne vous démontcz pas la tête à force de baîller, do not unscrew your head by dint of yawning.

## REFLEXIVE VERBS

1. Are there more reflexive verbs in French than in English?

Yes.
a) The French language possesses all the verbs which are reflexive in English, that is to say, express that the subject does to himself the action indicated by the verb; ex.: HE OFTEN HURTS HimSELF WITH that knife, il se blcsse souvent avec ce coutcau.
b) Besides these verbs, the boomerang action of which is truly reflexive, the French language possesses a great many other verbs, which in English are intransitive but in French are conjugated with a reflexive pronoun; ex.: I repent, je me repens; he REMEMBERS, il se souvient; SHE WORRIES, elle s'inquiète. These verbs are called pronominal, i.e. conjugated with a pronoun.

## 2. Conjugate a reflexive verb.

| Infinitive, | Se blesser, |
| :--- | :--- |
| Part. Pres., | Se blessant, |
| Past. Part., | S'être blessé, |
| Indic. Pres., | Je me blesse, |
|  | Tu te blesses, |
|  | Il se blesse |
|  | Nous nous blessons, |
|  | Vous vous blessez, |
|  | Ils se blessent, |
|  | Ime me blessais, |
| Imp., | Je me blessai, |
| Simple Past, | Je me suis blessé, |
| Compound Past, | Je m'étais blessé, |
| Pluperfect, |  |


| Past Anterior, | Je me fus blessé, |
| :--- | :--- |
| Future, | Je me blesserai, |
| Future Anterior, | Je me serai blessé, |
| Cond. Pres., | Je me blesserais, |
| ". Past, | Je me serais blessé, |
| Imperative, | Que je me blesse, |
|  | Blesse-toi, |
|  | Qu'il se blesse, |
|  | Blessons-nous, |
|  |  |
|  | Blessez-vous, |
|  | Qu'ils se blessent, |
|  | Que je me blesse, |
| Subj. Pres., | Que je me blessasse, |
|  | Que je me sois blessé, |
|  | Imp., |
|  | Que je me fusse blessé. |

3. What particulars are especially to be noticed in this conjugation?
a) The reflexive verb se blesser is conjugated exactly like the transitive verb blesser, but preceded by the reflexive pronouns.
b) The auxiliary in the compound tenses is not avoir but être. I have hurt myself, je me suis bless: and not je m'ai blessé.
c) In the imperative proper the pronouns are placed after the verb, and toi is substituted for $t e$.
4. Conjugate se blesser interrogatively.

Me blessé-je?
Te blesses-tu?
Se blesse-t-il?
Nous blessons-nous?
Vous blessez-vous?
Se blessent-ils?

## Note.

Me blessé-je? in colloquial French is constantly replaced by: Est-ce que je me blesse?
5. Are there other verbs, beside the intransitive, that are conjugated like reflexive verbs?

Yes.
a) A few passive verbs; ex.: ce livre se vend bien for est bien vendu, this book is sold a great deal; la maison se bâtit rapidement for est bâtie, THE house is being built quickly. [The English idioms, this book sells well; the house is bUILDING QUICKLY, are very similar.]
b) Reciprocal verbs, i.e. verbs indicating that two subjects act on each other; ex.: ils sinjurient, THEY REVILE EACH OTHER; les nations balkaniques se haïssent, the balkan nations hate one another.

## IMPERSONAL VERBS

1. Conjugate an impersonal verb.

| Infinitive, | Pleuvoir, | to rain. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Pres. Part., | Pleuvant, | raining. |
| Past Part. | Plu, | rained. |
| Ind. Pres., | Il pleut, | it rains. |
| " Imp., | Il pleuvait, | it rained. |
| Simple Past, | Il plut, | it rained. |
| Comp. Past, | Il a plu, | it has rained. |
| Plup., | Il avait plu, | it had rained. |
| Past Ant., | Il eût plu, | it had rained, it rained. |
| Fut., | Il pleuvra, | it will rain. |
| Fut. Ant., | Il aura plu, | it will have rained. |


| Cond. Pres., " Past, | Il pleuvrait, Il aurait plu, | it would rain. it would have rained. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imper., | Qu'il pleuve, | Let the rain fall |
| Subj. Pres., | Qu'il pleuve, | that it may rain. |
| Imp., | Qu'il plût, | that it might rain. |
| -Past, | Qu'il ait plu, | that it may have rain |
| Plup., | Qu'il eût plu, | that it might have rained. |

## Note.

1. There is no difference whatever between impersonal verbs in English and in French.
2. A number of French verbs are formed with faire; ex.: il fait froid, it is cold, il fait noir, it is dark, il fera beau, it will be fine weather. They generally correspond to English verbs formed with it 1s, and, being conjugated only in the third person, are nearly akin to impersonal verbs.
3. Phrases like: there comes a time, there will appear a man, etc., are translated by ordinary verbs conjugated as if they were impersonal: il vient un temps, il paraîtra un homme.

## 2. Which impersonal verbs are the most frequently met with in French?

They are y avoir and falloir.

## 3. Conjugate $y$ avoir.

| Inf. Pres., | Y avoir, | to be |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Ind. Pres., | Il y a, | there is, there are |
| " Imp., | Il y avait, | there was, there were |
| Simple Past, | Il y eut, | there was, there were |
| Comp. " | Il y aeu, | there has been |
| Plup., | Il y avait eu, there had been |  |
| Past. Ant., | Il yeut eu, | there had been, there was |
| Fut., | Il y aura, | there will be |
| "Ant., | Il y aura eu, there will have been |  |

Cond. Pres., Il y aurait, there would be " Past, Imp., Sub. Pres., " Imp., " Past, " Plup.,

Il y aurait eu, Qu'il y ait, Qu'il y ait Qu'il y êt, Qu'il y ait eu, Qu'il y eût eu,
there would have been let there be that there may be that there might be that there may have bee'r that there might have [been

1. Il $y a$ is both singular and plural; ex.: there is A match, il y a un match; there are fine athLetes, il y a de superbes lutteurs.
2. There being no doctor, no time, etc., is translated rather ponderously by comme il $n$ 'y avait pas de médecin, pas assez de temps.
3. There is nó knowing, no saying, etc., is translated by on ne peut savoir, on ne peut dire, or il, n'y a pas moyen de savoir, pas moyen de dire.

## 4. Does not il $\boldsymbol{y}$ a frequently occur in sentences which in English do not include there is?

Yes, il y a constantly appears;
a) in speaking of distances; ex.: Ya-t-il loin? Is IT FAR? Il y a cinq heures (de chemin de fer) entre New York et Washington, it is five hours' Ride. from New York to Washington;
b) in speaking of time; ex.:
it is a month since he sailed, il y a un mois qu'il a pris le bateau;
he sailed a month ago, il a pris le bateau il $y$ a un mois.

## Note.

When an action is still in progress, the French use the present to translate the past in English; ex.: I have waited or i have been waiting a month for that man, il y a un mois que j'attends cet homme, or voici un mois que j'attends cet homme, or j'attends cet homme depuis un mois.
Idioms: il va y avoir un mois que, it will soon be a month since, qu'y a-t-il? what is the matter?

## 5. Conjugate falloir.

| Inf., | Falloir, | to be necessary |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ind. Pres., | Il faut, | it is necessary |
| Imp., | Il fallait, | it was necessary |
| Simple Past, | Il fallut, | it was necessary |
| Comp., " | Il a fallu, | it has been necessary |
| Plup., | il avait fallu, | it had been necessary |
| Past. Ant., | Il eut fallu, | it had been necessary |
| Fut., | Il faudra, | it will be necessary |
| " Ant., | Il aura fallu, | it will have been necessary |
| Cond. Pres., | Il faudrait, | it would be necessary |
| " Past, | Il aurait fallu, | it would have been necessary |
| Subj. Pres., | Qu'il faille, | that it may be necessary |
| " Imp., | Qu'il fallût, | that it might be necessary |
| " Past, | Qu'il ait fallu, | that it may have been necessary |
| " Plup., | Qu'il eut fallu, | that it might have been necessary |

## Note.

1. Not only to be necessary, but the verbs must, to have to, and ought are translated by falloir, which in consequence is probably the most used French verb; ex.: i must leave you, il faut que je vous quitte; MUST YOU co? faut-il que vous partiez? I had to tell him; il fallut que je lui dise.

Devoir, it is true, is also used in sentences like the foregoing, but it only indicates a probability; ex.: we are to go to seal. harbor in august, nous devons aller à Seal Harbor au mois d'août.
2. Remember that the verb following fallotr is invariably in the subjunctive: je pars, il faut que je parte, I am leaving, I must be leaving. (je pars = indic.; que je parte $=$ subj.)

## 6. What is the meaning of il me faut?

I WANT or I need, ex.: il me faut un meilleur dictionnaire, I want, or I need a better mictionARY.

## 7. What is the meaning of il le faut?

It is necessary; ex.: partez à l'instant, il le faut absolument, leave at once, it is absolutely NECESSARY; nous reculâmes, nous rîmes bien qu'il le fallait, we fell back, we found it was neCESSARY.

## 8. Analyse the sentence: il va falloir partir.

Translate word for word:

$$
\begin{aligned}
i l v a & =\text { it is going } \\
\text { falloir } & =\text { to be necessary } \\
\text { partir } & =\text { to go }
\end{aligned}
$$

So il va falloir partir $=$ it is going to be necesSARY to go, or I, We, you will soon have to go.

## Résumé

## What rules are exemplified in the following sentences?

He has not been written to I have just arrived

He wrote me He told me $\{$ about it

She ran $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { in } \\ \text { out }\end{array}\right.$

Do not ruin yourself
He has ruined himself
He never laments
Get up
This is easily understood.
Don't you punch one another
It is thundering
It was too warm
There seems to be a lull

There is a man
There are two men
There being no train

There was no riding
Is it two miles?
A week ago

On ne lui a pas écrit Je suis arrivé à l'instant

Il m'a raconté cela dans une lettre dans une conversation
elle est entrée $\{$ en courant
elle est sortie

Ne vous ruinez pas
Il s'est ruiné
Il ne se lamente jamais
Lèze - toi
Cela se comprend sans peine
Ne vous donnez pas de coups
Il tonne
Il faisait trop chaud
Il semble $y$ avoir une accalmie
Il y a $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { un homme } \\ \text { deux hommes }\end{array}\right.$
Comme i! n'y avait pas de train
Il n'y avait pas mozen de monter à cheval
$Y$ a-t-il deux milles?
Il y a huit jours
I must
I ought to
I have to $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { hurry faut que je me dépêche }\end{array}\right.$

Were you not to go to camp?
I wanted a kit
Sell the horse $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { it is necessary } \\ \text { you must }\end{array}\right.$ Vendez le cheval, il le faut

It is going to be necessary to pay.

Ne deviez-vous pas aller au camp?
Il me fallait un trousseau

Il va falloir payer

## VI

## ADVERBS

1. What French adverbs correspond to our adverbs ending in $l y$ ?

There are as many French adverbs in ment as there are English adverbs in Ly and they generally correspond; ex.: politely, poliment (in a polite manner). GRAvely, gravement, gaily, gaiement.

Note.
Ment (Latin mente) was a feminine ending in old French as in Latin. Hence the feminine E inserted before ment in adverbs like fort-e-ment, strongly. In a few adverbs this e becomes É; ex.: obscur-ćment, obsCurely.

## 2. Can French adjectives be used as adverbs?

Yes, bon, cher, droit, faux, haut, juste, long, NET, RAS, and vite, are frequently used adverbially. Notice that these words are monosyllables like most English adjectives (right, dear, Straight, high, LONG, etc.) used adverbially.
3. What is the French for better used adverbially?

Mieux (and not meilleur) ; ex.: he is mucii better, il va beaucoup mieux.
4. What difference is there between comme and comment?

Comme is never used interrogatively; ex.: How are you? comment allez-vous? and comment is never used in an exclamation; ex.: How well you ARE! comme vous allez bien!

## 5. What is the position of adverbs in French?

French adverbs are always placed after the verb, and we ought to remember that they can never be placed as in English between the auxiliary and the past participle; ex.: I see clearly, je vois clairement, I have repeatedly told you, $j e$ vous ai dit fréquemment.
Bien, souvent, and rarement are the only exceptions in the compound past; ex.: I slept well, $j ’ a i ~ b i e n ~ d o r m i ; ~ I ~ o f t e n ~ n o t i c e d, ~ j ' a i ~ s o u v e n t ~ o b-~$ servé.
Assez is placed before the noun; ex.: bread enough, assez de pain.

## 6. Underline the most commonly used adverbs in the following list:

> A. ADVERBS OF QUALITY:
assez, enough
autant, as much, as many
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { beaucoup, } \\ \text { bien, }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & \text { much } \\ & \text { many }\end{aligned}$
combien, how much, how many?
davantage, more
moins, less
peu, little, not much, few plus, more tant, so much, as much trop; too much un peu, a little, a few

## B. ADVERBS OF TIME:

à la fois, at the same time alors, then
après-dcmain, the day after to-morrow
à présent, now aujourd'hui, to-day auparavant, previously aussitôt. immediately autrefois, formerly avant-hier, the day before yesterday
bientôt, soon
cependant, meanwhile
d'abord, first, at first
de bonne heure, betimes, early
déjà, already
demain, to-morrow
depuis, since then
depuis quand, how long?
dès lors, from that time forward
désormais, henceforth
de temps à autre, from time to time
dorénavant, henceforth
encore, still, again
enfin, at last
cnsuite, next
hier, yesterday
jadis, formerly
jamais, ever (with ne,) never
longtemps, for a long time maintenant, now. naguère, lately
onques (archaic) ever parfois, now and then plus (with ne), not henceforth, no longer
plus tard, later, subsequently
plus tôt, sooner
puis, then, next
quand, when
quelquefois, sometimes
souvent, often
sur-le-champ, at once, immediately
tantôt, by and by, just now
tantôt.... tantôt, at one time, at another
toujours, always
tout-à-coup, suddenly

## C. ADVERBS OF PLACE:

ailleurs, elsewhere
alentowr, autour, around autre part, elsewhere céans (archaic) within çà et là, here and there dedans, within dehors, outside derrière, behind dessus, above dessous, below d'où, whence, where from?
en arrière, behind
ici, here
là, there
loin, far
nulle part, nowhere où, where?
partout, everywhere par où, which way?
près, near
quelque part, somewhere $y$, there.

## D. ADVERBS OF MANNER:

ainsi, so
à peine, hardly assez, sufficiently aussi, (also) as
autant, as, as much
beaucoup, much
bien, much, very
combien, how much? how?
comme, how! as, as it were
comment, how?
davantage, more
de même, likewise
encore, still, even (with comparative.)
ensemble, together
fort, very
guère (with ne), hardly mal, wis-, in- un-
même, even
moins, less
mullement (ne), in no way
on ne peut plus, extremely
peu, not very, in-, un-
plus, more
plutôt, rather
pourquoi, why?
presque, almost
quelque, about
quelque peu, somewhat
quelque...que, however
si, so, as
surtout, above all, especially
tant, so, so much
tellement, so
tout, quite, however (que)
très, very
trop, too, too much
un peu, somewhat, to some extent
trop peu, too little

## E. ADVERBS CONNECTING CLAUSES:

$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { ainsi, } \\ \text { aussi, }\end{array}\right\}$ so, accordingly car, for cependant, however, yet d'ailleurs, besides donc, then, therefore $d u$ reste, at the same time mais, but néanmoins, nevertheless
nonobstant, notwithstanding or, now
par conséquent, consequently.
partant, therefore, hence pourtant, still, yet toutefois, all the same toujours, still

## 7. What is the meaning of donc?

Donc really means THEREFORE and is frequently used in that sense; ex.: therefore i will stay here, donc, je reste ici; it often means so, if so, and in this connection is easily replaced by alors; ex. : so, if so, he is crazy, il est donc fou or alors, il est fou.
Finally it is constantly heard as an expletive recalling JUST in English; ex.: just come here, vencz donc! JUST HOLD YOUR TONGUE, taisez-vous donc! JUST LISTEN, écoutez donc!
Allons donc! is the equivalent of NONSENSE and dites donc! the equivalent of I SAy.

## Note.

The final c in Donc is sounded when the meaning is therefore or so; it is mute in other cases, because the word becomes little more than an exclamation.

## 8. What difference is there between si and oui?

Si; or SI, SI, or mais si are used in sentences more or less sharply contradicting a denial and corresponding to OH Yes! or Why, yes! Ex.: "he is not ill"-"why, yes, he Is", "il n'est pas malade.""Si, il l'est; mais si, il l'est!

## VIJ

## PREPOSITIONS

## 1. Give a list of French prepositions.

$\dot{a}$, to, at
après, after
avant, before (time, order)
avec, with
chez, at, or to the house of
contre, against
dans, in, into
de, of, from
depuis, since, from
derrière. behind
dès, as early as
devant, before
en, in, into
entre, between, among envers, towards hors, except outre, besides
malgré, in spite of par, by, through
parmi, among
pour, for
sans, without
selon, according to
sous, under
sur, upon
vers, towards

## 2. Give a list of other words and phrases used as prepositions.

à bas de, down from
à cause de, because of
à côté de, beside
à (au) défaut de, failing à force de, by dint of
à moins de, short of
à travers, $\}$ through au travers de, \}across
en arrière de, behind
en avant $d e$, in front of
en bas de, at the botton of en dépit de, in spite of en raison de, according to excepté, except
faute de, for want of hormis, except
au-delà de, beyond au devant de, to meet au dehors de, outside au-dessous de, below au-dessus de, above au lieu de, instead of durant, during au prix de, compared to auprès de, near, compared to
autour de, round d'après, according to d'avec, from among
hors de, out of
$j u s q u ' a ̀, \quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { up to } \\ \text { down to }\end{array}\right.$
le long de, along
lors de, at the time of
moyennant, in exchange for
pendant, during
près de, near quant $\grave{a}$, as for sauf, except, save suivant, according to touchant, concerning vu, seeing that.

## VIII

## CONJUNCTIONS

1. How are conjunctions classified?

Conjunctions are a) coordinative, i.e. connecting clauses which might be left separate; ex: he is RICH, but he is stupid; b) subordinative, i.e, connecting two clauses one of which would be incomplete without the other; ex.: he wrote that I Might be informed.
But is a coordinative, and that a subordinative conjunction in these sentences.
2. Give a list of coordinative conjunctions.

| et, | and |
| :--- | :--- |
| et... et, | both... and |
| ou, | or, |
| ou. . ou, | either... or |
| $n i$, | nor |
| ni... ni, | neither...nor (requires $n e$, |
| mais, | with the first verb) |
| que, | but |
|  | than, as |

3. Give a list of the real subordinative conjunctions.

There are only four:

| que | that |
| :--- | :--- |
| si | if |
| comme | as |
| quand | when |

## 4. Give a list of the conjunctions including que.

a) Governing the indicative.

1. Temporal
```
\(\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { lorsque, } \\ \text { or quand, }\end{array}\right\}\) when
après que, after
avant que, before
aussitôt que, as soon as
dès que, \(\} \begin{aligned} & \text { from the moment } \\ & \text { when, as soon as }\end{aligned}\)
depuis que, since
à peine. . . que, scarcely... when
pendant que, \(\}\) while
tant que, as long as
\(\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { en attendant que, } \\ \text { jusqu'à ce que, }\end{array}\right\} u n t i l\)
```

Note.
En attendant que and jusqu'À ce que, until, govern the subjunctive.
2. Causal
parce que, because
puisque, since
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { attendu que, } \\ \text { vu que, }\end{array}\right\}$ seeing that
comme, as, inasmuch as
3. Comparative

loin que, far from
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { selon que, } \\ \text { suivant que, }\end{array}\right\}$ according as
de même que, just as
comme, as
b) Governing the subjunctive.

1. Final
afin que, in order that
de crainte que, lest
de peur que, lest pour que, in order that
2. Consecutive
de manière que, so that de sorte que, so that de façen que, so that sans que, without
3. Concessive.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { quoique, } \\ \text { bien que, }\end{array}\right\}$ though
encore que, even though

soit que... soit que, whether.... or quand, quand même, (with conditional) even though
4. Conditional.
si or que si, if (takes plup. subj; ex. : s'il m'êt cru)
pourvu que, provided
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { supposé que, } \\ \text { admettant que, }\end{array}\right\}$ supposing
à moins que, unless
pour peu que, if... at all
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { en cas que, } \\ \text { au cas que, }\end{array}\right\}$ in case

## IX

## EXCLAMATIONS

Most exclamations can not be translated literally. They can be learned with the greatest ease by conversation, but their use is divined rather than explained.
In French, as in English, exclamations constantly become obsolete and are replaced by others. Morbleu! tudieu! palsambleu! mordieu! etc., are still read, but they are never heard.
The following exclamations are the most frequently heard:

To call somebody :
Oh! - ho! holloa!
ohé! Eh! là bas! - holloa, you over there!
allô! (at the telephone) - hello!
Dites donc, là bas! - I say, you over there!
To affirm :
Bien sûr! - certainly!
Sûrement, - certainly!
Assurément, - undoubtedly!
Certes! certes oui - yes, yes indeed!
Sur ma foi! - upon my faith!
Ma parole d'honneur! - upon my word of honor!
Parfaitement! - I mean it, absolutely!
Naturellement! - of course!
Dame! (to one's self) - of course!
Tenez-Ecoutez!-Look here! Listen!

To admit:
Très bien, fort bien! - granted!
Soit! - granted!
A la bonne heure! - that's right! well and good
A merveille! - quite right
Sans doute! - naturally
Juste! - right!
Entendu! - I agree, all right.
Bon! - all right.
Convenu! - agreed, all right
Parfait! - I fully agree
Ma foi! - after all (you are right.)
Va pour (le théâtre, le cercle, etc.) - the theatre, the club, by all means!

To admit with satisfaction :
Pour sûr! - of course!
Je crois bien! - I should say so!
Je vous crois! - rather!
Dame! - of course!
To contradict :
Pardon! - I beg your pardon
du tout, pas du tout, - not at all
pas le moins du monde, - not in the least
allons donc! - nonsense!
jamais! - never!
Allons! allons! - come, come!
jamais de la vie! - never in the world
certes non! - no, indeed!
Pensez donc! - just think!
chut! - mum! hush!
taisez-vous! - hold your tongue!
silence - silence!

To denote surprise:

```
Bah! - bah!
Vraiment! - really!
Tiens! - really!
Sapristi! - by Jove!
Pas possible! - impossible, you don't say so!
Quel conte! quelle histoire! - Tell it to the marines!
Diantre!
Fichtre! \(\quad\) the deuce!
Bigre!
```

To denote embarrassment :
Diable! - the déuce!
Mais!... - why!...
Hum!... - H'm!
Voyons, voyons! - Let me see!
Attendez un peu! - wait a minute!
When shocked:
Mon Dieu! - Dear me!
Que dites-vous là? - you don't mean it!
Horreur! - shocking!
C'est affreux! - horrible!
To warn:
Attention! - careful!
Gare! - look out!
To encourage:
$V a$ (ex. : ça ira, va)-it will be all right! you'll see Vive...! - hurrah for...! Long live...!
Allons $y$ ! - go ahead!
Marche! - go ahead!

Hardi! Courage! - cheer up.
Bravo! - hear, hear! well done!
Bis! - encore!
Vas-y-donc! - never fear!
Tiens bon! - hold on!
То моск:
Ta ta ta, - tut, tut.
Turlututu! - Fiddlesticks!
Flûte! - Diddlededee!
To show contempt:
A bas! - down with...!
Conspuez! - down with...!
To denote irritation:
Zut! - pshaw!
In terror:
Bonté divine! - good gracious!
Oh! mon Dieu! - good heavens!
Au secours! - help!
Au feu! - fire!
Au voleur! - thieves!
A l'assassin! - murder!
Sauve qui peut! - every man for himself.
In pain :
Aie! - ah!
Oh! là là! -oh, my! (Also used flippantly).
Oh! mon Dieu! - my goodness!
When giving something:
Tenez! - here!
Voilà! - there!

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \% \\
& 8 \\
& 1 \\
& 5 \\
& -5 \\
& \geqslant-1
\end{aligned}
$$

GALLICISMS

## GALLICISMS

The ways of speaking or phrasing peculiar to the French language are called Gallicisms. The following are the most frequent Gallicisms arranged in the order of the parts of speech.
The only way to make oneself familiar with these idioms is to examine the examples carefully and imitate them in short simple sentences of one's own.

## DEFINITE ARTICLE

1. He broke his arm,

Il s'est cassé le bras.
Possessive adjectives are replaced by the definite article before nouns indicating the parts of the body.
2. He has a small head,

Il a la tête petite.
The indefinite article is also replaced by the definite in the same case.
3. We paid ten cents a dozen for eggs,

On payait les ceufs dix sous la douzaine
The indefinite article is also replaced by the definite in sentences indicating prices or frequency (twice a week, deux fois la semaine).
4. I come from France, I am going to Canada, J'arrive de France, je vais au Canada.

Logically we should say: j’arrive de la France, but the definite article is left out before names of countries in the feminine.

Before the same names in is translated by En. The French say: en Amérique, en Angleterre, because Amérique and Angleterre are feminine, but they say: aux Etats-Unis, au Japon, because these names are masculine.

## INDEFINITE ARTICLE

1. He is a doctor,

Il est médecin.
The indefinite article A, AN, is left out before attributes or nouns in apposition.
2. This devil of a man,

Ce diable d'homme.
The same suppression takes place when the second noun denotes the same person as the first.
3. Was there ever a more terrible war?
$Y$ eut-il jamais guerre plus cruelle?
The same suppression is usual after Jamais, even when there is no interrogation; ex.: jamais garçon ne fut plus heureux, NEVER WAS A BOY MORE DELIGHTED.

## PARTITIVE

1. Robust children,

Des enfants robustes, de robustes enfants.
The partitive should be Des when the adjective is after the noun; it should be DE when the adjective precedes the noun.
2. To drink good coffee; we drank gond coffee, Boire de bon café; nous avons bu du bon café.

The partitive is DE when the meaning is general;
it becomes DU the moment an individual action is recorded.
3. Nothing more tedious, Rien de plus enпиуеих.

De is added before a comparative.

## NOUN

1. Passengers are requested to lower their heads, Les voyageurs sont priés de baisser la tête.

The French, bearing in mind the individual, often use the singular where English-speaking people, seeing the collectivity, use the plural.
2. You little silly! Petit sot!

You preceding a vocative is left out in French.
3. Mr. X. is away; this gentleman says... Monsieur est absent; monsieur dit...

Servants speak of their master as monsicur; used by other people it is more polite than CE MONSIEUR.

## ADJECTIVE

1. A navy blue gown, Une robe bleu-marine.

Compound adjectives indicating colors are invariable (bled instead of bleve).
2. A scanty dinner, a fish dinner, Un maigre diner, un diner maigre.

In a few cases, which usage teaches easily, the meaning of the words varies according to the place of the adjective.
3. He is remarkably stupid!

Il est d'un bête!
Adjectives are frequently used instead of nouns in familiar exclamations; however il est d'une bêtise! is also frequent.
4. Your aunt.

Mademoiselle votre tante.
French politeness still insists on softening the possessive adjective by a title when you speak to a person of a member of his family.
5. The more he says, the less I believe him, Plus il parle, moins je le crois.

The definite article is omitted in the double comparative.
6. The same words, the very words, Les mêmes mots, les mots mêmes.

Même meaning same always precedes the noun; meaning VERY it follows it.

## Note.

Même, an adjective, ought not to be confused with MEME, an adverb meaning even, or with lui-meme, himself; ex.: Même mon chien ne me reconnut pas, even my dog did not know me; mon chien même ne me reconnut pas, MY VERY DOG DID NOT KNOW ME.
7. Such a swimmer,

Un tel nageur.
Tel in French takes the place of an ordinary adjective (comp. un bon nageur).

Idiom-Tel quel or telle quelle, means as he, SHE, or IT IS; ex.: je prendrai la maison telle quelle, I will take the house as it is.
8. The other day, the summer before last,

L'autre jour, l'autre été.
L'AUTRE JOUR only means a recent date, L'AUTRF. ÉTÉ means the summer before last (as in English every other year).
9. Every man, on every occasion, Tout homme, en toute occasion.

Tout meaning every or all can take the feminine like any other adjective.
The whole of Rome was there,
Tout Rome y était.
When tout means the whole of a city it is invariable.
Elles étaient toutes honteuses,
They were quite ashamed.
Singularly enough Quite, an adverb, is translated by tout, adjective, which is variable.

## PRONOUNS

a) Personal pronouns.

1. I love and revere him, Je l'aime et le révère.

The personal pronoun is not repeated before the second verb when its meaning is somewhat similar to that of the first.

## Note.

The same suppression is frequent in legal formulas; ex.: je donne et lègue, I will and bequeath.
2. Albert and I were saying, Albert et moi (nous) disions.
My brothers went away, I stayed,
Mes frères partirent, moi je restai.
It was I whom they elected,
C'est moi qu'on a élu.
MoI is frequently used as a subject when it is coupled with a noun or more or less emphasized.
3. We, you,

Nous autres, vous autres.
Nous, vous, become nous autres (cf. Spanish nosotros), vous AUtres, when the sentence indicates a distinction or separation; ex.: nous autres Français rions même de nos malheurs, we French PEOPLE LAUGH EVEN AT OUR OWN MISFORTUNES.

## Note.

Eux autres is a provincialism.
4. I said in that book....

Nous disions dans ce livre...
Writers and teachers frequently associate their readers or classes with themselves and use the plural pronoun instead of the singular.
In the same way, nous n'arons pas su notre leçon, nous n'avons pas été sage, said in an indulgent tone means: YOU DID NOT RECITE YOUR LESSON WELL, YOU HAVE NOT BEEN GOOD. This may be said to one or to several people.
5. I wrote to your Excellency asking you....

J'ai écrit à votre Excellence, la priant....
The feminine pronoun is used after a title of courtesy in the feminine; ex.: votre Majesté,

Your Majesty; Votre Altesse, Your Highness; Votre Grandeur, Your Grace.
6. He took his stick and began to use it...

Il te prend son bâton et s'en sert...
Vous or TE are frequently used pleonastically in vivid narrations (cf. your American thinks nothing of a thousand mile trip).
7. Seeing a drum he sat on it,

Voyant un tambour il s'assit dessus.
IT is frequently left untranslated after a preposition.

Use of moi and LUI:

1. He looks at me, look at me.

Il me regarde, regardez-moi.
The English pronoun me is always translated by me preceding the verb, except in the imperative, where it is translated by moi following the verb.

## Note.

Even in the imperative me is translated by we when there is a negation; ex.: do not look at me, ne me regardez pas.
2. He speaks to me, speak to me, Il me parle, parlez-moi.

To me is translated by me, except in the imperative unaccompanied by a negation, where it is translated by moi (not $\dot{a} m o i$ ).

## Note.

To me is translated by à moi only after verbs denoting motion; ex.: HE CAME TO ME, il vint à moi.
3. Bring that book to him, take it away from him, Apportez lui ce livre, reprenez-le lui.

Lui translates both то Him and from him.
4. Let him do as he pleases, Laissez lui faire ce qui lui plaît.

Him is translated by lui instead of le, (ex.: laissez le faire) when the verb following Him is completed by a clause.
5. I saw him do wonders, Je lui ai vu faire des merveilles.

LUI is also used instead of LE when the sentence denotes admiration or contempt.

Idioms-chez lui, at his home, des idées à lui, ideas of his own, c'est mal à lui, it is wrong of him.

## REPETITION OF PRONOUNS

Pronouns are frequently repeated in French in the following cases:

1. to show distinction; ex.:

Our maid who (better than the others) knew the road,
Notre bonne qui, elle, connaissait le chemin.
2. in emphasis; ex.:

What gives us Americans the right to say...
Ce qui nous donne à nous Américains le droit de dire...
3. in explanation; ex.:

War had impoverished both of us.
La guerre nous avait appauvris, lui et moi.

Le, La, Les, as pronouns:

1. Are you the queen? Yes, I am (she).

Etes-vous la reine? Oui, je la suis.
Are you the doctors? Yes, we are, Etes-vous les médecins? Oui, nous les sommes.

When the meaning of the sentence points more to "an individual than to his quality Le, LA, LES are used according to the gender and number,
2. Are you a queen? Yes, I am (one),

Êtes-vous reine? Oui, je le suis.
Are you doctors? Yes we are,
Êtes-vous médecins? Oui, nous le sommes.
When, on the contrary, quality is emphasized in the question, only le is used in the answer.
3. Pleonastic use of LE:

Jealous she was and she will be,
Jalouse elle l'était et le sera.
As much as I can (do so), I help the poor Autant que je le puis, j’aide les malheureux.
Le in the first sentence repeats jalouse and in the second it sums up aider les malheureux. Idioms-I.e céder, to give in L'emporter, to conquer L'échapper belle, to have a narrow escape Le disputer à, to vie with.
This usage recalls English phrases like to rough it, to think it better to, in which it is also pleonastic.

Pleonastic use of EN:

1. Rich he does not seem to be,

Riche? il n'en a pas l'air.
$E_{N}$ in this sentence stands for être riche.
2. He had a dreadful time of it!

Il en a passé!
Take my word for it
Croyez m'en.
I have enough (of this)
J'en ai assez.
In these very idiomatic phrases EN is neither more nor iess pleonastic than OF IT, FOR IT, or OF THIS in English. But there are many others in Frenciz which have no equivalent in English, ex.:

Où en êtes-vous? How far have you got? Il s'en faut bien, Far it is from it.

## DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

1. It seems to me

Ce me semble.
CE is sometimes used instead of IL neuter.
2. Seeing this, whereupon.

Ce voyant, sur ce.
Ce is also used for cela.
3. It is not a great feat,

Ce n'est pas là un grand exploit.
The word cela is decomposed into its two constituent parts ce....là to emphasize the words un grand exploit. This is done in sentences showing admiration or, on the contrary, contempt.
4. He is great who conquers himself

Celui-là est grand qui se vainc.
In the same way Celui qui can be split in two, but celui becomes celui-Là.
5. What caused his loss was his avarice, Ce qui le perdit ce fut son avarice.

Ce in CE FUT is pleonastic; frequent in sentences beginning with ce qui, ce que.
6. That class has no respect for anybody Cela ne respecte personne.

Cela is often used colloquially in speaking of people one scorns, even where only one person is meant.

## RELATIVE PRONOUNS

1. He who breaks pays

Qui casse paie.
Celui qui is frequently found shortened into QUI in proverbs coined at a time when this was the usual way of speaking.
2. And what is worse....

Et qui pis est.
Ce qui is also abbreviated into QUi, a terse usage. Idiom: Voilà qui cst parler

That is speaking
3. They flocked in, some from the North, others from the South.
Ils arrivèrent en foule, qui du Nord, qui du Midi. Qui.... QUi instead of les uns.... les autres imparts charming vivacity to the sentence.
4. The tutor of that boy who used to bore us. Le précepteur de ce garçon, lequel nous ennuyait souvent.
Lequel instead of qui leaves no doubt that the boring person was the boy, whereas Qui would be ambiguous.
5. The difficulties with which we then struggled....

Les difficultés oì nous nous débattions alors.... OÙ, instead of AVEC LEQUEL or DANS LEQUEL, is a terse usage frequent in the best writers.

## INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

On

1. What you conceive clearly can also be expressed clearly.
Ce que l'on conçoit bien s'énonce clairement.
L'ON is a shade more dignified than on, and is also used to avoid a harsh hiatus, (ex.:.où on).
2. Coming!

On y va!
On is colloquially used for JE or nous.
3. Once more you don't know your lesson, be careful! On ne sait pas encore sa leçon, qu'on fasse attention! On is used instead of vous in reproach or menace.
4. Nobody could be wittier On n'a pas plus d'esprit.

Idioms of this kind always denote superlative admiration or irritation; ex.: on n'est pas plus bête, ONE COULD NOT BE MORE STUPID.

Tel:
Many a man shines in a subordinate position who seems dull in a higher one
Tel brille au second rang qui s'éclipse au premier. Tel in proverbial sentences is often used where English would use he who, many a man, etc.

## Chacun :

Every body knows
Chacun sait.
Chacun translates both, every one, and each one. It is always used as a pronoun, the corresponding adjective being CHAQUE.

## Autrui :

We must think of our neighbor,
Il faut penser à autrui.
Autrui (lat. alterumi) is never used as a subject and is only found in general sentences.

## VERB

Inversion of Subject:
The French language inverts the subject as we do in English in two cases:

1. In indirect questions, ex.: ASK yourself wifat MIGHT BE YOUR SITUATION, IF. .., demandez-vous ce que pourreit être votre situation si..
2. In sentences beginning by à peine, hardly; non seulement, NOT ONLY; en vain, in vain; à plus forte raison, EVEN WITH BETTER CAUSE; and de là, HENCE, when these words begin a sentence, ex.: hardly were we out at sea, à peine fûmes-nous hors du port.
The French language also inverts the subject in the following cases where we do not invert it in English:
3. After peut-être, perhaps; aussi, therefore; and in the idiom toujours est-il, AT ANY RATE, ex.: YOU MAY PERHAPS SAY, peut-être direz-vous; THEREFORE I feel sure, aussi suis-je sûr.
4. In dependent clauses, ex.: the long exercises WHICH MY FATHER SET ME, les longs devoirs que me donnait mon père.
5. In concessive or conditional clauses, ex.: However intelligent a school boy may be, quelque intelli. gent que soit un élève.
6. After c'est... oue when the following verb is an intransitive, ex.:

It is from the North now-A-Days that light COMES TO US.
C'est du Nord aujourd'hui que nous vient la lumière.

Agreement of subjects with verbs:
The verb is in the plural although the subject is in the singular in the following cases:

1. After two subjects in the singular preceded by NI, ex.: neither New York nor Chicago can get RID OF ITS Smoke, ni New York ni Chicago ne peuvent se débarrasser de leur fumée.
2. After l'un et l'autre, ex.: bотн delight me, l'un et l'autre me charment.

## Note.

Ni l'un ni l'autre governs the singular.
3. After la plupart, most ; plus d'un, more than one; un petit nombre, A FEW; un grand nombre, A GREAT
mANy, ex.:• most of THEM SURRENDERED, la blupart se rendircnt.
4. After collective nouns in the singular when the action of the individuals is seen separately, ex.: une troupe de nymphes nageaient, A BAND OF nymphs Were swimming; when the action is seen collectively the verb is in the singular, ex.: ane troupe de soldats arriva, A BAND OF SOLDIERS ARRIVED.

The verb is in the singular although the subject is in the plural in the following cases:

1. After ce quid, ex.: what are known as the me:DIEVAL EPICS, ce qui est conn sous le nom d'ćpopées du Moyen-Age.
2. After le peu $d e$, ex.: what few people he sees bORE HIM, le peu de gens qu'il voit l'ennuient.

## USE OF TENSES

Indicative: If he comes and if he should tell you, S'il vient et qu'il vols die.

The two verbs would be in the indicative if si were the only preposition used (sill vient et s'il vols dit) ; but the introduction of que meaning suppose que makes the use of the subjunctive a necessity with the second verb.

Conditional: You might look twenty times, you would see nothing.
Sous regarderiez vingt fois, vous ne verriez rien.

Probabilities are marked very logically by the conditional.

Present Participle: This tense seems very ponderous to the French and they avoid it as much as they can. The same tense in English is, on the contrary, very convenient and frequently used.
i. The participles being or feeling so often placed at the beginning of an English sentence disappear i. French, ex.: Feeling sure that you would sucCeed I came, Sûr que vous réussiriez j’arrivai.
2. Many English present participles are translated by past participles in French (lying, sitting, standing, kneeling, etc.), ex.: Lying at the mouth of the Loire, Saint Nazaire ought to be a large port, Situé à l'embouchure de la Loire, Saint-Nazaire devrait être un grand port.

Infinitive: 1. One of the characteristics of the French language is the constant use of the infinitive. In the following sentence: j'espère pouvoir venir apporter mon concours à votre œuvre, I HOPE I CAN COME AND GIVE MY ASSISTANCE TO YOUR WORK, there are three infinitives in succession, almost an impossibility in English.
2. On the other hand the English construction imitated from the Latin: "HE WANtED ME TO BE A sailor" is no longer in use in modern French, and the translation runs: il voulait que $j e$ sois marin.
3. In the numerous instances in which a present participle follows to see and to hear in English the

French substitutes an infinitive for the participle, ex.: I heard him whistling, je l'entendis siffler.

## Note.

When a graphic effect is intended the present participle is retained, ex.: I could see him hopping round, je le voyais là sautillant.
4. French infinitives frequently replace English nouns, ex.: the talent for organization, le talent d'organiser; his capacity for condensation, son aptitude à condenser.

## PREPOSITIONS BEFORE AN INFINITIVE

Examine carefully the following sentences:

1. Come and tell me, Venez raconter (no prep.)
2. He hopes to come,

Il espère venir (no prep.)
3. He asks to come,
4. I shall do my best to come,

Il demande à venir (à)
Je ferai mon possible pour venir (pour)
5. He will try to come,

- Il essaiera de venir (de)

You will find that the infinitive in the French sentences 1 and 2 is not preceded by any preposition, whereas in the French sentences 3,4 , and 5, the infinitive is preceded by À, POUR, DE.
Now in the corresponding English sentences the second verb is almost always preceded by то, and the question is for an English-speaking person how to know, 1: when the French preposition ought to be left out, and 2: in what case то ought to be translated by $\AA$, DE, POUR.
a) The preposition is left out in two cases:

1. after verbs of motion like aller, то GO; venir, TO COME; courir, TO RUN ; retourner, TO GO BACK; also after conduire, TO LEAD, and envoyer, TO SEND,
ex.: COME AND TELL YOUR FATHER WHAT YOU have done,
Venez raconter à votre père ce que vous avez fait.

## Note.

Remember that il a été, il s'en fut, frequently meaning he has gone, he went and really belonging to aller, are not followed by any preposition.
Idiom: Je viens de voir, I have just seen.
2. After verbs of thinking, hoping and stating, ex. : Je croyais partir aujourd'hui, I thought I should leave to-day.
b) Cases in which the verb is preceded by $\grave{A}$, POUR, DE. By À:

To is translated by $\AA$ in the following cases :

1. When the verb begins a sentence indicating an inference.

To hear you one would imagine
$A$ vous entendre on s'imaginerait.
2. When the sentence can be interrupted immediately before the verb by the question: то до what? Ex.:

Americans have grown accustomed (to do what?) to help every body Les Américains se sont habitués (à quoi faire?) à aider tout le monde.

I am ready (to do what?) to follow their example.
Je suis prêt (à quoi faire?) à suivre leur exemple.
3. After avoir, ex.:

J'ai à vous dire que
I have to tell you that...
4. After nouns which in English are followed by in, ex.:

I take pleasure in informing you
J'ai plaisir à vous apprendre.

## By Pour:

The infinitive is preceded by POUR:

1. When the corresponding English sentence would contain FOR, ex.:

He was punished for being too wise
Il a été puni pour avoir été trop sage.
He passes for a learned man
Il passe pour savant.
2. When to in the English sentence means in orDER TO, and generally when a definite purpose is indicated, ex. :

Open the window to cool the room
Ouvrez la fenêtre pour rafraîchir la chambre.
3. After trop and ASSEZ, ex.:

Too proud to fight
Trop fier pour se battre.

## By De:

The French infinitive is, nine times out of ten, preceded by DE . which in most cases is a mere link
and has no more meaning than to has in English. However, it is advisable to state that DE will be found chiefly in the following cases:

1. Wherever of would be used in English after a noun or an adjective, ex.:

The duty of educating the nation,
Le devoir d'instruire la nation.
I am doubtful of succeeding...
Je ne suis pas sûr de réussir.

## Note.

There are but few adjectives governing of, but there are a great many nouns in English which do so and there are even more in French. Hence, the number of compound prepositions derived from a noun and ending by de., ex.: afin de, in order to, à moins de, unless, faute de, in default of, au point de, to the extent of, etc.
2. When the first verb can be decomposed into a verb and a noun, ex.:

He advised me to live on a ranch, (decompose: He gave me the advice)

Il me conseilla de vivre dans une ferme.
3. After impersonal verbs beginning by il, neuter, ex.:

Il importe de comprendre
It is important to understand.
Il est dur d'être exilé
It is hard to live in exile.
C'est beaucoup de savoir un métier
It is a fine thing to know a trade.
4. De is frequently used instead of PAR: ex.: précédé de musicicns, PRECEDED by musicians; amusé de ses réparties, Amused by his repartees.

## Note.

In numerous cases no definite rule can be given for the use of DE ; but an instinct is soon developed in the student who feels that when $\hat{A}$ or pour would be out of place DE is the right preposition. Ex.: You were kind to write me, Vous avez été aimable de m'écrire; I was wrong to stay, J'ai eu tort de rester.

## REMARKS ON A FEW VERBS

Faire.
Conjugation.

| Ind. pres. | Je fais |
| :--- | :--- |
| Imp. | Je faisais |
| Simple past | Je fis |
| Compound past | J'ai fait |
| Future | Je ferai |
| Condit. | Je ferais |
| Imper. | Fais |
| Subj. | Que je fasse |
| Imp. | Que je fisse |

1. Faire is the most frequent French verb: it translates not only to make, ( T make a speech, faire un discours) and то DO (то DO NOTHING, ne rien faire) but also the following verbs:
TO ORDER, ex. : he ordered him to run, il le fit courir, TO BID, ex.: he bade me repeat, il me fit répéter, to Let, ex.: I shall let you know, je vous ferai savoir,
to CAUSE, ex. : he caused him to be removed, il if fit éloigner,
to get; ex.: he got him appointed, il le fit nommer, to haye, ex. : he had him sentenced, il le fit condamner,
to compel, ex.: I will compel you to speak, je vous ferai parler.
and other verbs like TO SEND FOR, faire venir; Tо buILd, faire bâtir; to HAVE AN ILLNESS, faire une maladie; TO PRETEND, faire semblant; etc.
Faire is also found in numerous phrases which in English begin by IT IS, ex. : IT IS DARK, il fait noir; IT IS COLD, il fait froid; etc. (see page 153).
2. (1) I shall have him taught Je le ferai instruire.
(2) I will make him understand what I want, Je lui ferai comprendre ce que je veux.

Observe that him is translated by $l e$ in sentence (1) and by lui in sentence (2), because Him is a direct object in the first case and an indirect one in the second.

The direct object of faire comprendre is ce que jc veux, and the parsing becomes very easy if we replace lui by the word it represents, for instance: $j e$ ferai comprendre à mon fils ce que je veux.
3. Work alone causes talent to ripen, Le travail seul fait mûrir le talent.

Not fait le talent mûrir: the second verb always follows faire immediately.
4. He made the shepherd his prime minister, Il fit du berger son premier ministre.

This usage can easily be understood if we remember that we say in English almost indifferently: I shall make him a real man or I SHALL MAKE A REAL MAN OF HIM.
5. I am going to have another coat made for me, Je vais me faire faire un autre pardessus.

The combination faire faire which sounds so strange to English ears is constant when made follows an object governed by one of the verbs to have, to get, to Cause.
It goes without saying that if another participle takes the place of MADE, the second faire is replaced by the infinitive of that participle, ex: I am going to have my hair cut, $j e$ vais me faire couper les cheveux.

Idioms. 1. Il ne fait que fumer, He does nothing 'except smoke.
2. Je ne fais que d'arriver, I have only just arrived.
3. Vous avez beau fairc, Do what you will.
4. Ne faites pas le modeste, Do not act the modest man.
5. Fais le bcau, toutou, Beg, Doggie.

## . LlLer .

1. I will soon call on you,

Je vais bientôt aller vous voir.
Aller is frequently used to denote the future.
2. I have been there twice,

J'y ai été or j'y suis allé deux fois.
Aller has two compound pasts: $j$ 'ai ćié and $j c$ suis allé (note the different auxiliary).
3. You go round saying... Vous allez partout disant....

A charmingly vivacious construction in French, both colloquial and literary.
4. The wood became thicker and thicker, Le bois allait en s'épaississant.

Progress is often marked by aller, followed by the present participle.

## Vouloir.

1. Vouloir is frequent in French as it translates not only will, but also wish, WANT, intend, mean, TRY, ex.:

I will not go there, Je ne veux pas y aller. What do you WISi ? Que voulez-vous? He intends to live abroad, Il veut vivre à l'étranger. He tried to make his escape, Il voulut s'źchapper.

## Note.

The phrase je veux sounds unpleasantly dictatorial in French and is avoided by well-bred people. So we must be careful not to acquire the habit of using it as a mere translation of the future, or even of I want or I wish. I want you to be here at two, will be best translated by Je désire que vous soyez ici à deux heures, even speaking to an inferior, or simply by the imperative: Soyez ici à deux heures, which is perfectly polite.
2. Please remember me to your father, Veuillez me nappeler au souvenir de votre père.

Please is translated either by veuillez (placed at the beginning of the sentence) or by sil vous plaît (placed after the principal verb.)
3. I should like you to understand,

Je voudrais que vous compreniez.
I should like is translated by je voudrais.
Je voudrais is also the proper translation for I WISH in such phrases as I wish you would or I WISH YOU WERE.
4. Will you have a cup of camomile tea?

Voulez-vous une tasse de camomille?
Vouloir is frequently used as a transitive verb
[il veut de l'argent, il veut du plaisir].
Proverb-Vouloir c'est pouvoir.
Where there's a will there's a way.

## ADVERB

A peine si:
He is no scholar, he is hardly educated,
Il n'est pas savant, à peine s'il a quelque instruction.
A peine si or c'est à peine si has the meaning of hardly.
A synonym is tout au plus, at most, after which the subject is inverted (tout au plus a-t-il quelque instruction).

## Combien :

Combien translates several English words:

1. How much? Ex. : How much is it?

Combien est-ce?
2. How many? Ex.: How many have you? Combien en avez-vous?
3. How well! Ex.: How well I realised! Combien j'ai compris!

## D'où ?

1. Where do you come from?

D'où venez-vous?
Where.... From is translated literally by d'où?
2. From which or whence I infer that.... D'où je conclus que....

Used metaphorically, d'où corresponds to WHENCE.

Encore:

1. Encore means still, yet, again, ex.: he is stili, there, il est encore là; he has come again, il est encore revenu.
2. It also means more, ex. : MORE COFFEE?..., encor: du café?....

Pas:
Pas is left out in the following cases:

1. After oser, to DARE; cesser, to stop; bouger, to STIR; savoir, TO KNow.

Ex. : I did not dare to stir, Je n'osais bouger.
2. After qui ne.

Ex.: Il n'y avait personne que ne le crût, Nobody who did not believe him.
3. After que ne, in exclamations.

Ex.: Que ne m'appelait-il! Why did he not call me!

## Note.

After pas davantage, neither, the subject is inverted. Ex.: pas davantage ne songea-t-il à m'appeler, neither did he think of calling me.

Peu :
Peu, an adverb, means hardly:
Peu préparé à être officier, Hardly qualified to be an officer.

Par où?

> Par où? means which way?

Ex.: Which way did he go out? Par où est-il sorti?

Près :
Près means near, $\left.\begin{array}{l}\grave{a} \text { bcaucoup près } \\ \text { tant s'cn faut }\end{array}\right\}$ mean FAR FROM IT, pas à beacoup près means not NeArly.

## PREPOSITIONS

A This preposition (Lat. Ad, Eng. At) is generally prefixed to names of places, but is also found before names of time.
A and $\Delta \mathrm{T}$ exactly correspond in the following cases:

1. before names of towns, ex.: at Exeter, à E.reter; at Marseilles, à Marscille;
2. before names of places, not towns, where one stays or goes habitually, ex.:
at school, à l'école, au collège,
at church, à l'église,
at the office, au bureau.

## Note.

$\AA$ is also used before nouns generally preceded by in in English when a habit is suggested: for instance, we say of a forester: il travaille au bois, he works in the wood, because he works there habitually; but of a writer: il travaille dans le bois, he is working in the wood, because the writer only works accidentally in the wood.
3. In many phrases stating an occasion or a state, ex. : at the thought of, à la pensée de, at work, au travail, at attention, au garde à vous.
4. before names of church or other festivals, before hours, and before automne, AUTUMN, and printemps, spring (été, summer, and hiver, winter, are preceded by en). Ex.:
at Easter, à Pâques,
at night, au soir,
at ten o'clock, à dix heures,
in the fall, à l'automne.

## Note.

Names of European countries are all feminine, with two exceptions, Danemark (Denmark) and Portugal. All of them, including these two masculine nouns, are preceded by en, ex.: in Russia, en Russic; in Portugal, en. Portugal.
Names of countries outside Europe are preceded by en when they are feminine, ex.: in California, en Californie; they are preceded by au when they are masculine, ex.: in Canada, au Canada. However, we should say, dans le Connecticut, dans le Massachusetts.

## Dans, En:

1. The distinction made above between $\grave{a}$ and dans obtains between dans and en: dans suggests a transient, en a permanent action, ex.:
to drive, aller en voiture, to go by rail, aller en chemin de fer,
in Heaven, en Paradis,
but I saw him in a carriage,
Je l'ai vu dans une voiture,
I met him in the train,
Je l'ai rencontré dans le train,
because the meaning of these sentences shows that the action was accidental.
2. For the same reasons dans is used every time the place or the people in a place are well defined, ex.:

Dans cette assemblée,
In this assembly.
Dans le Parlement de 1898, In the Parliament of 1898.
3. Within or in meaning within are translated by dans, ex.:

I shall leave in three days,
Je partirai dans trois jours.
IN meaning IN THE SPACE OF is translated by en, ex :.
He wrote his play in three days,
Il écrivit sa pièce en trois jours.
4. Dans is frequently used where the English language uses out of, ex.:

That robin used to eat out of my hand, Ce rouge-gorge mangeait dans ma main.
5. En is used in speaking of clothing, ex.:
in uniform,
en uniforme.
in full dress,
en grande toilette.
6. En frequently means As or LIKE, ex.:
il s'est comporté en gentilhomme, he behaved like a gentleman.

DE:

1. De generally means of or FROM, ex.:

The mayor of New York,
Le maire de New York.
He comes from New York,
Il vient de New York.
2. It is used elliptically, ex.:

Ce n'est pas d'une dame de....
It is not (in the character) of a lady to....
3. It also denotes material as in English but is frequently replaced in this connection by en, ex.:
a house of wood,
une maison de bois.
it is made of wood,
c'est en bois.
Note.
When the word designating the material is used as an adjective, ex.: a wooden statue, an iron pipe, de is the more frequent translation: une statue de bois, un tuyau de fer.
4. De is pleonastic when numbers are mentioned, ex.: dix hommes de trop, ten men too many.
5. De indicating a passive state means sometimes of, sometimes FROM or BY: ex.:
tired of long marches, fatigué (i.e. having enough) de longues marches. tired from long marches, fatigué (worn out) de longues marches.
6. De is used in many cases where English employs bY: ex.:

Esteemed by everybody, Estimé de tous. Taller by a foot, Plus grand d'un pied.
7. De sometimes applies to time, ex.:

De nuit,
By night (cf. o'nights).
De mon vivant,
In my life time.
De huit jours, For a week.
8. De is frequent where English uses with, ex.: With a tranquil air, D'un air tranquille.

JusQu'À:
$J u s q u ' a ̀$ or jusque corresponds to both till an:l AS FAR AS, ex.:

Till Easter,
Jusqu'à Pâques.
As far as Irvington,
Jusqu'à Irvington.

Par:
The usual meaning of par is by, ex.:
Painted by me,
Peint par moi;
but par also means through, ex.:
Nous reviendrons par Orléans, We shall come back through Orleans;
and sometimes in, ex.:
In such weather, Par un temps pareil.

## CONJUNCTIONS

Ne:
$N e$ is frequently met with in French sentences in which it has no negative sense and is apt to mislead the English-speaking reader entirely. For instance, à moins qu'il ne vienne seems at first sight to mean à moins qu'il ne vienne pas, unless he dOES NOT COME, but in reality it means exactly the reverse: unless he comes. Ne is there only because à moins que demands its presence.
$N e$ is thus used without a negative sense in the following cases:

1. After À moins que and de peur que, ex.:

Restez de peur qu'il ne vienne, Stay lest he should come.
2. After avant gue, ex:

Avant que le Congrès ne se réunisse, Before Congress meets.
3. After que.... meaning since, ex.:

It is three days since I saw you,
Voilà trois jours que je ne vous ai vu.
4. After the comparative, ex.:

He is taller than I thought, Il est plus grand que je ne croyais.
5. After verbs indicating fear, doubt, despair, denial, or hindering, ex.:

I am afraid you imagine....
Je crains que vous n'imaginiez....
6. After the second Ni in a sentence including $n \mathbf{i} . .$. $n i$, ex.:

He neither spoke nor smiled, Il ne parla ni ne sourit.

Que:
Let it be remembered that que sometimes means how much, how many, ex.:

How much noise! how many people!
Que de bruit! que de gens!
also that in French proverbs handed down in old language it means ce que, ex.:

Advienne que pourra,
Come what may.
The chief meanings of Que, a conjunction, are the following:

1. Que at the beginning of an exclamative sentence means how! ex.:
How beautiful it is!
Que c'est beau!
2. Que at the beginning of an interrogative sentence means wHy....Not, ex.:

Why did you not call me?
Que ne m'appeliez-vous?
3. Que is pleonastic in sentences like:

Répondez que non; dites que oui, Answer no; say yes;
and is used in numberless cases in which we leave that out because the meaning of the sentence is clear without it: ex.:

I thought (that) you would come, Je croyais que vous viendriez.
4. Que appears in sentences beginning by si, though тнат is not used in English after IF, ex.:

Sile ciel s'assombrit (ind.) et qu'il pleuve (subj.), If the sky should darken and it rained.

## Note.

Que si (lat. quod si) begins a supposition. Ex.: que si l'on vous dit, suppose somebody should tell you.
5. Que is also pleonastic in exclamative sentences, ex.:

Quel homme que Washington!
What a man Washington was!
Voilà ce que c'est que de fainéanter!
That's what comes of loafing!
Malheureux que tu es!
You unfortunate man!
6. C'est que means it is because, or the fact is, ex.:

C'est que cet homme m'ennuie, It is because that man bores me.
7. Que after an imperative frequently means afiu que, тHat, ex.:

Venez que je vous dise,
Come here that I may tell you.
8. Que....ou means whether....or, ex.:

Whether you approve or disapprove, Que vous approuviez ou que vous blâmiez.

## Queloue:

1. Quelque generally means However, ex.: However wise you may think yourself, Quelque sage que vous vous croyiez (subj.).

## Note.

a) Si sage or pour sage followed by the subjunctive or tout sage followed by the indicative would also be accurate translations.
b) Quelques, an indefinite adjective, means whatever, ex.: whatever claims you may have, Quelques droits que vous ayez.
2. Quelque, before a number also means About: ex.: Quelque vingt ans, Some twenty years, in which case it is invariable.

## Note.

It is of the highest importance to observe that the French language has a tendency to suppress conjunctions whenever the meaning of the sentence is clear without them. It is this habit that imparts to French a great deal of its lightness and vivacity as compared with its parent, Latin, or with English. Ex.: Though he was tired he went on, Fatigué, il continua pourtant, Even though people insulted and Shoved him, he.... Insulté, bousculé, il.... either you or I will have to.... Vous ou moi, nous devrons....

# FREQUENT MISTAKES TO BE CAREFULLY AVOIDED 

DO NOT SAY: SAY:
Angleterre est un pays riche
Nous buvons de lait
Ils sont grandes forêts !à
Deux beaux chevals
un vieu.x maison
un sage enfant
un homme américain
Je suis venu plus que dix fois
Elle est beaucoup admirée J'ai travaillé un petit
Il va vendre son maison
Descendez plusieurs marches
J'ai un cent francs ici
Président Madison
Georges cinquième
Si vous pouvez venir, faites cela
Moi! faire telle chose!
Je pensais de cela
J'irai là, j’allais là
Parlez encore à eux
Je lui ai vu hier
J'ai écrit à elle
De qui est cette maison?
Elle est celle du maire

L'Angleterre du lait
Il y a de grandes forêts deux beaux chevaux une vieille maison un enfant sage un américain
plus de dix fois
très or fort admirée un peu
sa maison
quelques marches
J'ai cent francs
Le Président Madison
Georges Cinq

Faites le
Faire une telle chose!
Je pensais à cela
J'irai, j'y allais
Parlez leur encore
Je l'ai vu
Je lui ai écrit
À qui est....?
.C'est au maire

## DO NOT SAY:

l'un que j"ai lu (book)
Le monsieur à quel je parlais
Quoi disiez-vous?
Ils crient dans la cour Une personne est là, il m'a dit
Je n'ai cru rien qu'il disait J'ai allé, j’allerai
Il envoira à vous
Je déteste à punir
C'est.moi qui a écrit
J'ai juste entendu
J'ai entendu de lui
Il pleuvait tout le mois
Avertissez-moi quand il arrive
Je veux acheter de la laine
Il veut monter tout de suite
Si vous voudriez venir je resterais
Il est trop tard pour moi apprendre le français
Il est trop tard pour que j'apprends
Il est trop tard pour que vous apprenne
Je serai content que vous venez
Il n'est pas possible qu'il guérira

SAY:
celui que j’ai lu
Le monsieur auquel
Que disiez-vous?
On crie....
elle m'a dit
Je u'ai rien cru de ce qu'il
J’ai été, j’irai
Il vous enverra
Je détcste punir
C'est moi qui ai....
Je viens d'apprendre
J'ai reçu une lettre de lui Il a plu....

Quand il arrivera
Je vais acheter
$I l$ va monter

Si vous vouliez

Pour que j’apprenne

Pour que j'apprenne

Pour que vous appreniez

Que vous veniez

Qu'il guérisse

## DO NOT SAY:

Demeurait votre mère à New York?
Chantera votre sœur?

Votre sour veut-elle chanter?
Elle a descendu à la cave
Pressez vous pas
Il a soi blessé
Les poulets sont vendus cher
Ils détestent l'un l'autre
Il est trop froid ici
Il était beaucoup de monde
Il est huit jours qu'il est parti
Il sera un mois demain
Partez tout de suite, il faut
J'ai vu bien
Il n'est pas là?-Oui, oui!
Il a cassé sa jambe
Je viens de la France
J'ai vécu en Japon
Il était un avocat
Rien plus heureux pouvait arriver
Vous petit méchant!
Voyant un tambour il s'assit sur lui
Laissez lui faire
Le jour viendra quand je saurai

SAY:

Votre mère demeurait elle?
Votre sœur chantera-telle?
Votre scur chantera-telle?
Elle est descendue
Ne vous pressez pas
Il s'est blessé

Les poulets se vendent
Ils se détestent
Il fait trop froid
Il y avait....

Il y a huit jours
Il y aura....
Il le faut
J'ai bien vu
Si, si!
Il s'est cassé la jambe
Je viens de France
au Japon
Il était avocat

Rien de plus heureux ne.
Petit méchant!
...il s'assit dessus
Laissez le faire

Le jour viendra où....

> DO NOT SAY:

J'entendais lui clantant Tâchez venir
Tâchez pour venir
Je suis prêt pour partir J'ai plaisir de vous apprendre
J'ai eu deux livres reliés Je ferai lui regretter Je veux que vous êtes ici à 5 heures
Nous étions en Paris
Le rossignol chante en printemps
Elle n'agit pas comme dam:
un feu en bois brûlait
Estimé par tout le monde
Elle dit avec une voix calme
Nous sommes venus à travers Albany
en telle tempête
Je pense oui
Attendez qu’il vient
Il faudra encore retourner

SAY:
Je l'entendais chanter
Tâchez de venir
Tâchez de venir
à partir
J'ai plaisir à....
or J'ai le plaisir de
J'ai fait relier....
Je lui ferai

Je désire que vous soycz...
à Paris
au printemps
en dame
un feu de bois
de tout le monde
d'une voix calme
par Albany
par une telle tempête
Je pense que oui
Attendez qu'il vienne.
Il faudra encore revenir (come again!

## CURRENT

## TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES

## CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES

1. The World War was concluded by the Treaty of Versailles.
2. The final drive was repulsed with heavy loss.
3. They took cover as the bombing-planes passed overheac.
4. He felt the chill of the zero hour.
5. At cockcrow they went over the top.
6. They came face to face in no man's land.
7. He was mentioned in dispatches.
8. Shell-shock put many men out of action.
9. He was gassed and invalided home.
10. He was kept all week on the firing-line.
11. He was adored by the rank and file.
12. He rose from the ranks through sheer ability.
13. He took more chances than any other flier.
14. His plane side-slipped and went into a nose dive.
15. The squadron returned to its base after the air-raid.
16. He became one of the leading allied aces.
17. He was killed while looping the loop.
18. The car skidded into the ditch.
19. They went for a spin in his high-powered roadster.
20. He was delayed for an hour by a blowout.
21. His motor stalled as he went into high.
22. He pleaded guilty and was fined for speeding.
23. He was suddenly recalled by wireless.
24. I sent him a wire declining the offer.
25. She rang him up but was cut off while talking.
26. He was unable to put through the call.

## CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES

1. La guerre mondiale s'est terminée par le Traité de Versailles.
2. La poussée finale fut repoussée avec de grosses pertes.
3. Ils se mirent à l'abri quand les avions de bombardement arrivèrent.
4. Il sentit le frisson de l'heure glaciale.
5. Au chant du coq ils sautèrent sur le billard.
6. Ils se trouvèrent face à face dans la zone neutre.
7. Il fut porté à l'ordre du jour.
8. La commotion mattait beaucoup d'hommes hors de combat.
9. Il fut pris des gaz et mis en congé.
10. Toute la semaine on le tint sur la ligne de feu.
11. Les simples soldats l'adoraient.
12. Il ne dut ses galons qu'à son intelligence.
13. Il s'exposait plus qu'aucun autre aviateur.
14. Son avion glissa sur l'aile et piqua du nez.
15. Après le raid l'escadrille revint à sa base.
16. Il devint l'un des premiers as alliés.
17. Il se tua en bouclant la boucle.
18. L'auto dérapa et tomba dans le fossé.
19. Ils firent un tour dans sa puissante auto de tourisme.
20. Une crevaison le retarda d'une heure.
21. Comme il montait, son moteur eut une panne momentanée.
22. Il avoua et paya l'amende pour excès de vitesse.
23. Il fut tout à coupl rappelé par sans-fil.
24. Je lui envoyai un télégramme pour refuser son offre.
25. Elle l'appela à l'appareil mais fut coupée.
26. Il ne put obtenir la communication.

## CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES (Continued)

27. "Busy" or "Don't Answer" was the invariable reply.
28. He hung up and left the booth.
29. They fought for the freedom of the seas.
30. The self-determination of peoples was at stake.
31. They believed in open covenants openly arrived at.
32. He considered the League of Nations a supergovernment.
33. The treaty embodied the famous fourteen points.
34. The mandates were apportioned among the Great Powers.
35. The balance of power was the keynote of the old diplomacy.
36. The divine right of kings passed into the discard.
37. A plebiscite was held to determine their national preferences.
38. A buffer state was suggested as a safeguard.
39. We cannot disarm without protective guarantees.
40. Reconstruction in the devastated area hinged on the size of the indemnity.
41. All the world longs for an agreement on disarmament. 42. Trade rivalry leads to an increased budget.
42. A high protective tariff apparently favors home industries.
43. Foreign exchange fluctuated enormously after the armistice.
44. Currency inflation had reached a maximum.
45. Many European bond issues are (pood buy at present $(1929)$ exchange rates.
46. The balance of trade was now in favor of the United States.

## CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES (Continued)

27. "Pas libre" ou "on ne répond pas" fut la réponse it: variable.
28. Il raccrocha les récepteurs et quitta la cabine.
29. Ils se battirent pour la liberté des mers.
30. Le droit des peuples à disposer d'eux-mêmes était en je::
31. Ils croyaient à la diplomatie ouverte.
32. La Ligue des Nations lui paraissait un sur-gouvernement.
33. Le Traité engloba les fameux quatorze points.
34. Les mandats furent partagés entre les grandes puissances.
35. L'equilibre des puissances était le mot d'ordre de l'ancienne diplomatie.
36. Le droit divin des rois fut rejeté.
37. Un plébiscite détermina leurs préférences nationales.
38. Un état-tampon fut suggéré comme protection.
39. Nous ne pouvons désarmer sans garanties.
40. La reconstitution des pays dévastés dépendait du montant de l'indemnité.
41. Le monde entier souhaite un accord pour le désarmement.
42. La rivalité commerciale conduit au grossissement des budgets.
43. Un fort tarif protectionniste semble favoriser les industries du pays.
44. Après l'armistice les changes étrangers varièrent extraordinairement.
45. L'inflation fiduciaire avait atteint le maximum.
46. Beaucoup de valeurs Européennes sont un bon achat avec le change actuel.
47. La balance commerciale était alors en faveur des Etats Unis.

## CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES (Continued)

48. Supremacy in world trade depends upon shipping power.
49. Many vessels are being made over into oil-burners.
50. Light cruisers may come to replace capital ships.
51. Fast destroyers are needed for coast defence.
52. They employed smoke-screens by way of camouflage.
53. The farmers were opposed to daylight saving.
54. Ragtime airs were all the fashion at that time.
55. He was a constant patron of the movies.
56. It was probably the best photoplay of the season.
57. Woman suffrage was everywhere victorious.
58. Prohibition delighted the drys and enraged the wets.
59. Nearly all the unions voted to go on strike.
60. Many of the workers advocated direct action.
61. Capital and labor are economically dependent upon each other.
62. He made his appeal to the extreme radical wing.
63. The labor party was definitely in favor of government control.
64. The surtax on large incomes was especially heavy.
65. The tax on necessaries increased the high cost of living.
66. High prices brought about a large reduction in sales.
67. Unemployment forced many deserving men onto the streets.
68. Government works were started as a relief measure.
69. Several ex-kings sought domicile in Switzerland.

## CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES (Continued)

48. La suprématie dans le commerce mondial dépend de la marine marchande.
49. On transforme beaucoup de navires pour leur faire brûler du pétrole.
50. Peut-être les croiseurs légers remplaceront-ils les gros cuirassés.
51. Il faut des torpilleurs rapides pour la défense côtière.
52. Ils se camouflèrent d'un rideau de fumée.
53. Les fermiers étaient opposés à l'heure d'été.
54. La musique syncopée faisait rage alors.
55. Il passait sa vie au ciné.
56. Ce fut probablement le meilleur film de la saison.
57. Le vote des femmes s'imposa partout.
58. La prohibition charma les "Secs" et rendit furieux les "Humides".
59. La plupart des syndicats votèrent la grève.
60. Beaucoup d'ouvriers recommandaient l'action directe.
61. Le capital et le travail sont économiquement inséparables.
62. Il fit appel à l'extrême gauche socialiste.
63. Le Travaillistes voulaient nettement le monopole d'Etat.
64. La surtaxe sur les gros revenus surtout parut lourde.
65. La taxe sur les denrées courantes fit enchérir la vie.
66. Les prix élevés firent diminuer la vente.
67. Le chômage mit sur le pavé quantité de braves ouvriers.
68. On ouvrit des ateliers nationaux par mesure de secours. 69. Plusieurs rois détrônés se fixèrent en Suisse.

## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX IV

## Measures, Weights, Coins

Measures - The decimal system was invented in France and French measures and weights are naturally based upon it.
The standard is the mètre ( 3 ft .3 inches), or one ten millionth of the circumference of the earth. It is subdivided into 100 centimètres, themselves each subdivided into 10 millimètres.

$$
\begin{aligned}
10 \text { mètres } & =1 \text { decamètre } \\
100 & \text { dect } \\
1000 \text { " } & =1 \text { hectomètre } \\
1 & =1 \text { kilomètre }
\end{aligned}
$$

SQuare measures- 1 square mètre $=$ mètre carré

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 100 \text { " } \\
& 10,000 \text { are } \\
& \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Roughly counting; 5 acres $=2$ hectares
Cubic measures-100 cubic centimètres $=$ décilitre
1000 " " = litre (quart)
1000 litres $=$ mètre cube or stère
Weights -
1 cubic centimètre of distilled water=1 gramme
100 grammes $=$ hectogramme
500 " = half-kilo or pound
1,000 " = kilogramme or kilo
1,000 kilos $=$ ton
Coins..- The monetary unit is the franc $=100$ centimes. Normally the franc $=19$ cents, American money. The sou $=5$ centimes.
The gros sou $=10$ centimes.
The half franc $=50$ centimes.
There used to be silver coins worth 1 fr., 2 frs., and 5 frs. and gold coins worth 10 frs. and 20 frs., but since the war paper or aluminum have been substituted for them.

## APPENDIX V

## Polite Formulas - Letter Writing

The French use the words Monsieur (to men), Madame (to married women), and Mademoiselle (ta unmarried women) more freely than is done with the corresponding terms in English. For instance the tenants of a house call the concierge (janitor) and his wife Monsieur and Madame; the clientele of restaurants where women are employed call the waitress Mademoiselle. Monsieur votre père, Mademoiselle votre fille, Monsieur le Docteur, are often used where we simply say "your father", "your daughter", "Doctor."
The French say ma femme, mon mari, never Madame or Monsicur So and so.
It is not good form in French to add the family name to Monsieur, Madame, or Mademoiselle in addressing people unless one has to do so in order to attract their attention.
Titles are not added in speaking to titled women, except princessess, who can be called "princesse" or Madame ; also, they are not generally added in speaking to titled men, who are simply called Monsieur except by their inferiors. However, a duke is addressed as Monsicur le Duc and a prince as "Prince." Priests are called Monsieur "A $A \bar{b} b e ́$, Bishops are called Monseigneur, nuns are called ma chère sœur or ma sœur. Officers can be called Monsicur without any offence when one does not know their rank. When one knows army men well it is customary to address them as capitaine, colonel, général, etc., although their subordinates say, mon capitaine, mon colonel, etc.

$$
* *
$$

Letter-writing is, generally speaking, more formal in French than in English.
Full titles are used on superscriptions:

> Monsieur le Docteur Récamier
> Monsieur le Marquis d'Argentan
> Monsieur le Général de Castelnau.

Professors do not like being called Monsieur le Professeur, which sounds German: they are called Monsieur. However, professors of medicine are often called Professeur So and So or cher maître in conversation.
There is no coldness in beginning letters with just Monsieur or Madame, and it requires intimacy to say chère Madame.
The following will be safely used in signing one's self.
To people one regards as one's superiors:
Veuillez croire, Monsieur or Madame, à mon profond respect, or à mes sentiments respectueux, or, with a nuance of affection, $\grave{a}$ mes sentiments respectиeиx et dévoués.
To one's equals: Croyez, Monsieur, à ma considération distinguée, or Recevez, Monsieur, l'assurance de mes meilleurs sentiments.
To friends: Bien à vous, affectueusement à vous, cordialement à vous.
Letters to inferiors are often written in the third person, ex.: M. Lebrun prie M. Durand de lui renvoyer les papiers qu'il a laissés lundi.
To officials, etc., whose position is not known to be exceptionally high, a convenient formula is: Recevez, Monsieur, mes civilités. This form is also used in business letters.

## APPENDIX VI

## Advice

In translating from English into French:
Do not write a single word in your copy-book before reading and re-reading the English text till yo!ı are sure of the meaning of every word.
Do not write a single word before having translated mentally the whole passage, referring to the dictionary only when you are sure that the French word is unknown to you.
Read the dictionary carefully, not confining yourself to the line or two which seem likely to help in "making sense", but reading the whole article.
Write legibly, leaving plenty of space between your lines for neat corrections.
Re-read.
In translating from Firench into English:
Read and re-read five or six times before even consulting the dictionary.
Do not write a single word before feeling ready to translate viva voce correctly and even elegantly.
Avoid literalness when it is barbarous. Do not translate il fut mis au pied $d u$ mur by "he was pushed to the foot of the wall", but by "he was driven into a corner", which is the corresponding idiom.
Always think of harmony, especially when you translate poetry.
In composing essays:
Do not write one line, save notes, before having thought out the subject so carefully that you could treat it viva voce. When this has been done, write your whole essay at a stretch, leaving blank or in English the words you would have to look up. Consult the dictionary only when your first draft is complete.
To sum up, never write anything. about which mental preparation has not made you sure. This will not only teach you the art of writing coherently and correctly, it will teach you foresight in planning and conscienciousness in seeking after truth.

## APPENDIX VII

## Bibliography

The first step in the study of any subject consists in obtaining information concerning the best books treating of that subject. The list of those books is called the bibliography of the subject. The French bibliography given hereafter is limited to the most accessible works written in English.

French Geography:
Blanchard and M:llicent Todd: Geography of France (Chicago, Rand, McNally and Co., 1919).

History of France:
W. S. Davis: Histoy of France, from the Earliest Times to the Treaty of Versailles (Boston, Houghton, Mifflin \& Co., 1919).
E. Bourgeois: Modern France (1815-1913), (Cambridge University Press, 1919).

Ccnstitution of France:
E. M. Sait: Government and Politics of France. (New York, World Book Co., 1920)

The People of France:
Edith Wharton: French Ways and Their Meaning. (New York, Appleton, 1919).
Laurence Jerrold: France, Her People and Her Spirit. (Indianapolis, Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1916).

French Literature:
C. H. C. Wright: A History of French Literature. (Oxford University Press, 1912).
G. L. Strachey: Lanḍarks in French Literatur?. (New York, Holt).
Ch. M. des Granges: An Illustrated History of French Literature. Translated by Louise Morgan Sill. (Paris, Hatier, 1922).

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[^0]:    * The Norman French spoken by the English Kings and by the majority of cul'ivated English people during the centuries immediately following the co" (quest by William the Conqueror was substantially the same as Parisian ficard.

[^1]:    (1) A Frenchman has no trouble in rolling a succession of $R$ 's, keeping the tip of his tongue between his teeth all the time.

[^2]:    (1) Medieval French and even present day patois contract A le into al. The transformation of $L$ into $U$ is of constant occurrence and ought not to surprise English-speaking people who pronounce hall like hawl.

[^3]:    (1) Old French had a tendency to change $L$ into $u$ before consonants. Hence cheval in the plural was spelt chevaus. $S$ became $x$ because the shorthand of those days abbreviated us as $x$ and scribes gradually confused $x$ and $s$.

[^4]:    (1) French grammarians call the conjunctive pronouns Atones (unstressed) because they are pronounced as if they were a part of the verb, and the disjunctive pronouns toniques (emphasized) because they are pronounced more clearly.

[^5]:    (1) Medieval F'rench wrote j'aimer ai (i.e. j'ai à aimer) j'écrire ai (i.e. j'ai à écrire) which corresponded to the low Latin future amare habeo, scribere habeo, I have to love I have to write.

[^6]:    (1) The irregularity in the future and the conditional disappears when we remember that medieval French used indifferently $u$ and $v$ in writing, so that $j$ 'ourai and j'avrai were the same word.

[^7]:    (1) Tlie moment the student knows aimer he will do well always to practise other verbs in ER, constantly varying the order of the tenses.
    (2) The termination ER corresponds to latin verbs in ARE, ex.: aimer.

[^8]:    (1) These verbs correspond (a) to the Latin verbs in IRE and (b) to many other verbs which gradually changed their infinitives to a form in isco or esco (Ex.: Floresco) indicating a beginning and consequently called inchoative.

[^9]:    (1) This is the case with such English verbs as to want, to ORDER, to WISH, etc., noting the action of the will.

